

Polarization and structure of relativistic parsec-scale AGN jets

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ABSTRACT

We consider the polarization properties of optically thin synchrotron radiation emitted by relativistically moving electron–positron jets carrying large-scale helical magnetic fields. In our model, the jet is cylindrical, and the emitting plasma moves parallel to the jet axis with a characteristic Lorentz factor Γ . We draw attention to the strong influence that the bulk relativistic motion of the emitting relativistic particles has on the observed polarization.

Our computations predict and explain the following behavior. (i) For jets unresolved in the direction perpendicular to their direction of propagation, the position angle of the electric vector of the linear polarization has a bimodal distribution, being oriented either parallel or perpendicular to the jet. (ii) If an ultra-relativistic jet with $\Gamma \gg 1$ whose axis makes a small angle to the line of sight, $\theta \sim 1/\Gamma$, experiences a relatively small change in the direction of propagation, velocity or pitch angle of the magnetic fields, the polarization is likely to remain parallel or perpendicular; on the other hand, in some cases, the degree of polarization can exhibit large variations and the polarization position angle can experience abrupt 90° changes. This change is more likely to occur in jets with flatter spectra. (iii) In order for the jet polarization to be oriented along the jet axis, the intrinsic toroidal magnetic field (in the frame of the jet) should be of the order of or stronger than the intrinsic poloidal field; in this case, the highly relativistic motion of the jet implies that, in the observer’s frame, the jet is strongly dominated by the toroidal magnetic field $B_\phi/B_z \geq \Gamma$. (iv) The emission-weighted average pitch angle

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of the intrinsic helical field in the jet must not be too small to produce polarization along the jet axis. In force-free jets with a smooth distribution of emissivities, the emission should be generated in a limited range of radii not too close to the jet core. (v) For mildly relativistic jets, when a counter jet can be seen, the polarization of the counter jet is preferentially orthogonal to the axis, unless the jet is strongly dominated by the toroidal magnetic field in its rest frame. (v) For resolved jets, the polarization pattern is not symmetric with respect to jet axis. Under certain conditions, this can be used to deduce the direction of the spin of the central object (black hole or disk), whether it is aligned or anti-aligned with the jet axis. (vi) In resolved “cylindrical shell” type jets, the central parts of the jet are polarized along the axis, while the outer parts are polarized orthogonal to it, in accordance with observations.

We conclude that large-scale magnetic fields can explain the salient polarization properties of parsec-scale AGN jets. Since the typical degrees of polarization are $\leq 15\%$, the emitting parts of the jets must have comparable rest-frame toroidal and poloidal fields. In this case, most relativistic jets are strongly dominated by the toroidal magnetic field component in the observer’s frame, $B_\phi/B_z \sim \Gamma$. We also discuss the possibility that relativistic AGN jets may be electromagnetically (Poynting flux) dominated. In this case, dissipation of the toroidal magnetic field (and not fluid shocks) may be responsible for particle acceleration.

1. Introduction

VLBI linear polarization studies of compact parsec-scale jets in radio-loud AGNs have revealed a number of general tendencies (e.g. Cawthorne et al. 1993; Gabuzda, Pushkarev & Cawthorne 2000; Gabuzda 2003, and references therein). These tendencies include (i) a roughly bimodal distribution of the electric vector position angles (EVPA) for the jet linear polarization with respect to jet direction, with quasars tending to have polarization orthogonal to the jet and BL Lac objects tending to have polarization along the jet (Marscher et al. 2002); (ii) the EVPA sometimes “follow” the jet as it bends, keeping its relative orientation with respect to the jet direction (Fig. 1, also Owen, Hardee, & Cornwell (1989) for the kiloparsec jet in M87); (iii) the jet EVPA sometimes experience orthogonal jumps along the jet, changing from aligned to orthogonal or vice versa (Gabuzda & Gómez 2001; Fig. 2); (iv) in some resolved jets, the EVPA in the central part of the jet lies along the jet, while the edges are polarized orthogonally to the jet direction (Attridge, Roberts & Wardle 1999; Moellenbrock, Roberts & Wardle 2000; Fig. 3); (v) Faraday-rotation gradients are frequently observed across the jets of BL Lac objects (Fig. 4). All of these properties are statistical, each having a number of known exceptions.

The large-scale magnetic fields are almost universally accepted to play an important role in the production (e.g. Blandford & Znajek 1977), acceleration (e.g. Blandford & Payne 1982; Contopoulos & Lovelace 1994; Camenzind 1995) and, especially, collimation of the jets (e.g. Heyvaerts &

Norman 1989; Sauty, Tsinganos & Trussoni 2002; Heyvaerts & Norman 2003); see also the review by Begelman, Blandford & Rees (1984). Yet their importance for jet propagation and emission generation is underestimated. Most commonly, polarization structure is attributed to transverse or oblique relativistic shocks propagating in the jet and compressing the upstream turbulent magnetic field, so that the compressed downstream magnetic field becomes anisotropically distributed (e.g. Laing 1980; Hughes, Aller & Aller 1989a,b). This mechanism produces fields compressed in the plane of the shock, and is expected to produce polarization along the jet for the case of a transverse shock. Numerous observations of polarization orthogonal to the jet are attributed to a sheared component of magnetic field in a sheath surrounding the jet. This overall scenario is open to criticism. First, since shocks are intrinsically transient events, it is difficult to see how the jet could retain its polarization orientation over extensive lengths, even in the presence of appreciable bending; it is also hard to see how weaker bridges with the same characteristic polarization connecting bright knots could be produced: this would require a quasi-steady sequence of weak shocks. Secondly, since internal shocks can be oblique, with a range of orientations, it is not natural to have a bimodal distribution of the relative EVPAs (the EVPAs in BL Lac seem to be in disagreement with the shock model Denn, Mutel & Marscher (2000)). Thirdly, some features showing longitudinal polarization are far from being compact (e.g. , the resolved VLBI jets of 1219+285 Gabuzda et al. (1994) and 1803+784 Gabuzda & Chernetskii (2003)).

An alternative interpretation of the jet polarization, which we favor, is that the flow carries large-scale helical magnetic fields. In this paper, we calculate the polarization properties of a relativistic jet carrying helical magnetic fields and compare them with observations. The results are encouraging. We can both reproduce the average properties of the jet polarization, such as the bimodal distribution of the observed EVPAs, as well as allow for possible exceptions, such as orthogonal jumps in the EVPA along the jet.

There have been two approaches to studies of the synchrotron polarization of AGN jets. On the one hand, Laing (1980, 1981) developed detailed models for optically thin synchrotron emission from *non-relativistic jets*. Recently, such non-relativistic models were generalized to include plasma effects on the propagation of the radiation inside the jet, Faraday rotation and the Cotton–Mouton effect (Zheleznyakov & Koryagin 2002; Beckert & Falcke 2002; Beckert 2003; Ruszkowski 2003). In these works, although plasma is relativistic, the radiation and polarization transport are considered in a static medium. In actual jets, the plasma is in a state of bulk motion with relativistic speeds. On the other hand, the polarization properties of the synchrotron emission from relativistic AGN jets have been discussed by Blandford & Königl (1979); Bjornsson (1982); Konigl & Choudhuri (1985), but not in the context of large-scale spiral magnetic fields. Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak (2003) has investigated the polarization properties of a specific configuration of a spiral magnetic field with a uniform axial field, zero total poloidal current in the jet, and with sheared relativistic spiral motion of the plasma perpendicular to the magnetic field lines. In this paper, we present the results of fully relativistic calculations for various jet internal structures and the resulting polarization structures. We take a step back and try to answer the question of whether we can reproduce the most salient

polarization features of AGN jets under generic assumptions about the internal helical magnetic field in the jet (basically generalizing the work of Laing (1981) to relativistic jets). In order to answer this question, one must know the internal structure of the jet (distribution of poloidal and toroidal magnetic fields) and the distribution of synchrotron emissivities. These are highly uncertain in terms of theoretical principles, and are also subject to averaging over the whole jet (for unresolved jets) and along the line of sight (for resolved jets).

Conventionally (and erroneously for a relativistically moving plasma!), the direction of the observed polarization for optically thin regions and the associated magnetic fields are assumed to be in one-to-one correspondence, being orthogonal to each other, so that some observers chose to plot the direction of the electric vector of the wave, while others plot vectors orthogonal to the electric vectors and call them the direction of the magnetic field. *This is correct only for non-relativistically moving sources, and thus cannot be applied to AGN jets.* First, relativistic boosting changes the relative strength of the magnetic field components along and orthogonal to the line of sight, which transform differently under the Lorentz boost. Thus, if we could see the magnetic fields directly, the strength of the jet poloidal and toroidal fields measured in the laboratory frame would be different from those measured in the jet frame. Second, since the emission is boosted by the relativistic motion of the jet material, the polarization EVPA rotates parallel to the plane containing the velocity vector of the emitting volume \mathbf{v} and the unit vector in the direction to the observer \mathbf{n} , so that *the observed electric field of the wave is not, in general, orthogonal to the observed magnetic field* (Blandford & Königl 1979; Lyutikov, Pariev & Blandford 2003). Thus, to reconstruct the internal structure of relativistic jets from polarization observations, one needs to know both the polarization *and* the velocity field of the jet. Overall, plotting the direction of the electric field (EVPA) should be considered the only acceptable way to represent polarization data for sources where relativistic motion may be involved.

Because of the finite resolution of real polarimetric observations, the observed intensities of the polarized and unpolarized components are averages over the effective beam size. When the resolution is relatively low, the transverse distribution of the intensity is unresolved. In this case, only the intensity and polarization averaged over the jet size is observed. If the jet is circular in cross section and the distributions of the magnetic fields, emitting particles, and velocity fields are axisymmetric across the jet, then the whole jet can be decomposed into a collection of infinitesimally thin shells. These shells have constant components of the spiral magnetic field and constant emissivity along their perimeter, and are moving uniformly with a constant velocity. The summation of the polarization from the front and back crossing points of a line of sight with such a shell results in the observed EVPA of each shell either being parallel or perpendicular to the jet axis. Consequently, the integrated polarization from a cylindrical axisymmetric jet is either parallel or perpendicular to the jet axis. This is true regardless of relativistic effects and is also true in the presence of rotation of the jet (Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak 2003). Real jets are not cylindrical, and diverge with distance from the core, and they may have an elliptical or otherwise nonaxisymmetric cross section. We qualitatively expect that these effects will lead to deviations of the EVPA from

a strictly bimodal distribution, and even to the appearance of $\pi/4$ EVPAs with respect to the jet axis.

Polarization along or orthogonal to the jet is often interpreted in terms of toroidally or poloidally dominated jets. Since *the ratio of the toroidal to poloidal fields depends on the reference frame*, one should be careful in defining what is meant by, for example, a toroidally dominated jet. A strongly relativistic jet with comparable toroidal and poloidal fields in its rest frame (defined, for example, as a frame in which the particle distribution is isotropic) will be strongly toroidally dominated in the observer frame.

The choice of reference frame in which the structure of the jet is considered depends on the questions to be asked. For example, the intrinsic stability of the jet (e.g. with respect to kink modes) depends mostly on the properties of the jet in its rest frame. It is expected that strongly toroidally dominated jets (in their rest frame) should become unstable. Though there are stable laboratory field configurations with dominant toroidal fields (reverse field pinches), they require a careful arrangement of currents which is not likely to occur under astrophysical conditions. In addition, relativistic force-free, differentially rotating pinches¹ are likely to be more stable than the non-relativistic analogue due to the stabilizing effects of differential rotation (Istomin & Pariev 1994, 1996). These two arguments show that the field configuration in the rest frame may be somewhat dominated by the toroidal field, but is unlikely to be strongly toroidally dominated. The observational appearance of jets, such as their intensity and linear polarization, also depends mostly on the internal structure of the jet and the emissivity distribution, but a proper transformation to the observer frame is needed. On the other hand, interactions of a jet with the surrounding medium and the corresponding instabilities (e.g. , Kelvin–Helmholtz) depend mostly on the jet properties in the observer frame.

Our polarization calculations indicate that, in the jet rest frame, the toroidal and poloidal fields are generally comparable, so that *in the observer frame, the relativistic jets are dominated by the toroidal magnetic field*: the more relativistic the jet, the larger the observed toroidal magnetic field. Note that this conclusion is also consistent with the dynamical evolution of the large-scale poloidal and toroidal fields: it is expected that the ratio of the poloidal to the toroidal magnetic field in the observer frame decreases linearly with the cylindrical radius of the jet as it expands from the central disk (sizes of the order of hundreds of A.U.) to a thickness of ~ 0.1 pc; (see Section 7).

We also assume that the emission is optically thin and neglect possible plasma propagation effects, such as Faraday and Cotton–Mouton effects. This approximation is usually well justified (Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak 2003). Faraday rotation is absent in a pair plasma, as well as intrinsic depolarization inside the jet. VLBI polarization measurements are done at frequencies in the range 1.6 GHz to 43 GHz. Synchrotron self-absorption is very small at GHz and higher frequen-

¹Here, by a relativistic force-free pinch, we mean that the electric fields are of the order of the magnetic fields, and the charge densities are of the order of j/nec , see below.

cies. For $B \sim 10^{-2}$ G, $n \sim 0.1$ cm $^{-3}$, and $p \approx 2.5$, an approximate estimate for the synchrotron self-absorption coefficient is $\kappa_s = (5 \cdot 10^3 \text{ pc})^{-1} (\nu/1 \text{ GHz})^{-2-p/2}$ (e.g., Zhelezniakov 1996). The corresponding optical depth through the 1 pc jet is only $2 \cdot 10^{-4}$. The typical energy of particles emitting in this frequency range in a 10^{-2} G magnetic field is 100 MeV to 1 GeV. The conversion of linear polarized into circular polarized radio waves (the Cotton–Mouton effect) is also small. For both thermal and relativistic power-law particle distributions with $p \approx 2.5$ and a minimum Lorentz factor ~ 10 , the estimate for the conversion coefficient is $\kappa_c = (500 \text{ pc})^{-1} (\nu/1 \text{ GHz})^{-3}$ (Sazonov 1969). This is too small to influence the transfer of linear polarization inside the jet, but could be the source for a small circular polarization, at the level of a fraction of a per cent. We focus on linear polarization in this work.

As a first step, we consider the synchrotron emission of an unresolved, thin, circular cylindrical shell populated by relativistic electrons with a power-law distribution and moving uniformly with constant velocity $\beta = v/c$. The properties of the synchrotron emission are then determined by *three parameters*: the internal pitch angle of the magnetic field ψ' , the Lorenz factor of the shell in the laboratory frame Γ and the viewing angle, θ , that the line of sight to the observer makes with the jet axis in the observer's reference frame. Note that, in the case of unresolved jets, this is equivalent to calculating the polarization from a jet with a pitch angle properly averaged by the emissivity.

By performing the correct Lorentz transformations of the jet and radiation electromagnetic fields, we construct polarization maps for various observation angles θ and jet parameters. We find that, in order to produce polarization along the jet axis, the pitch angle of the helical magnetic field *in the jet frame* must be of the order of unity or greater, $B'_\phi/B'_z \sim 1$. By virtue of the Lorentz transformation, this implies that the relativistic jets are observed to be dominated by the toroidal magnetic field $B_\phi/B_z \geq \Gamma$. In addition, we find that a change of the EVPA in the jet can occur only for a narrow range of rest-frame pitch angles, $\pi/4 \leq \psi' \leq \pi/3$, which allows one to measure (and not only derive a lower limit for) the ratio of the toroidal and poloidal magnetic fields $B_\phi/B_z \sim \Gamma \gg 1$.

Further, we consider the emission from "filled" jets, i.e., when most of the jet volume contributes to the emissivity. To find the emission properties of such jets, one also needs to integrate the jet emissivity over the jet volume. This requires knowledge of the internal structure of the jet and the distribution of synchrotron emissivity throughout the jet, which introduces large uncertainties into the model. To test the sensitivity of the results to a particular jet model, we investigate three possible force-free models for the jet structure (diffuse pinch, pinch with zero total poloidal magnetic flux and high-order reverse field pinch) and two prescriptions for the number density of relativistic particles (proportional to the second power of the current density and to the magnetic energy density). We conclude that the emission weighted average pitch angle in the jet must not be too small if we wish to produce longitudinal polarization. This implies that a quasi-homogeneous emissivity distribution *cannot reproduce the variety of position angle behavior observed* – the average polarization remains primarily orthogonal to the jet, dominated by the central parts of the jet

where the magnetic field in the comoving frame is primarily poloidal (since the toroidal field must vanish on the axis). Since this is not generally the case, the synchrotron emission in such jets must be generated in a narrow range of radii, where the toroidal and poloidal magnetic fields are of the same order of magnitude in the jet frame. Though Laing (1981) argued against this possibility on the grounds that it should produce strongly "edge-brightened" profiles in resolved jets, subsequent observations of the resolved jets of Cen A (Clarke et al. 1986) and M87 (Biretta, Owen & Hardee 1983) did, in fact, show such an intensity distribution.

2. Synchrotron emission from steady relativistic flows

Consider a cylindrical jet (Fig. 5) viewed by an observer. Below we denote all quantities measured in the local frame comoving with an elementary emitting volume with primes, while unprimed quantities are those measured in the observer's frame. Let r , ϕ , and z be cylindrical coordinates centered on the jet axis and x , y , and z be the corresponding rectangular coordinates. The magnetic field is in the $\phi - z$ direction. The components of all vectors written below are components with respect to the rectangular coordinates x , y , and z . The velocity $\beta = v/c$ of the bulk motion is directed along the z direction (the corresponding Lorentz factor is $\Gamma = 1/\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}$). We do not consider bulk rotation of the jet in this work. An observer is located in the $x - z$ plane, so that the unit vector along the direction of the emitted photons can be written $\mathbf{n} = \{\sin \theta, 0, \cos \theta\}$. We assume that the distribution function for the emitting particles in the frame comoving with an element of the jet is isotropic in momentum and is a power law in energy:

$$dn = K_e \epsilon^{-p} d\epsilon dV d\Omega_p. \quad (1)$$

Here, dn is the number of particles in the energy interval $\epsilon, \epsilon + d\epsilon$, dV is the elementary volume, $d\Omega_p$ is the elementary solid angle in the direction of the particle momentum \mathbf{p} , $K_e = K_e(r)$ and $p = \text{constant}$.

Since the emitting particles are ultra-relativistic and we neglect the generation of circular polarization, we do not include circular polarization in our model (Stokes $V = 0$). We also neglect a possible tangled component of the magnetic field in the emission region. Under these assumptions, our estimates provide an upper limit on the possible polarization.

The Stokes parameters per unit jet length for a stationary flow are then given by (see also Lyutikov, Pariev & Blandford (2003); Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak (2003))

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \frac{p+7/3}{p+1} \frac{\kappa(\nu)}{D^2(1+z)^{2+(p-1)/2}} \int \frac{dS}{\sin \theta} K_e \mathcal{D}^{2+(p-1)/2} |B' \sin \chi'|^{(p+1)/2}, \\ Q &= \frac{\kappa(\nu)}{D^2(1+z)^{2+(p-1)/2}} \int \frac{dS}{\sin \theta} K_e \mathcal{D}^{2+(p-1)/2} |B' \sin \chi'|^{(p+1)/2} \cos 2\tilde{\chi}, \\ U &= \frac{\kappa(\nu)}{D^2(1+z)^{2+(p-1)/2}} \int \frac{dS}{\sin \theta} K_e \mathcal{D}^{2+(p-1)/2} |B' \sin \chi'|^{(p+1)/2} \sin 2\tilde{\chi}, \\ V &= 0. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

The function $\kappa(\nu)$ is

$$\kappa(\nu) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \Gamma_E \left(\frac{3p-1}{12} \right) \Gamma_E \left(\frac{3p+7}{12} \right) \frac{e^3}{m_e c^2} \left[\frac{3e}{2\pi m_e^3 c^5} \right]^{(p-1)/2} \nu^{-(p-1)/2}, \quad (3)$$

where e and m_e are the charge and mass of an electron, c is the speed of light, Γ_E is the Euler gamma-function, z is the cosmological redshift and D is the luminosity distance to the jet. The integration in (2) is over $dS = r dr d\phi$, $0 < \phi < 2\pi$, $0 < r < R_j$ for unresolved jets (R_j is the jet radius), while, for resolved jets $dS = h dh d\phi / \sin^2 \phi$, $\arcsin h/R < \phi < \pi \operatorname{sgn} h - \arcsin h/R$, where h is the projected distance of the line of sight from the jet axis (Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak 2003). In Eq. (2), \mathcal{D} is the Doppler boosting factor

$$\mathcal{D} = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1 - \beta \cos \theta)}, \quad (4)$$

χ' is the angle between the line of sight and the magnetic field in the rest frame of a plasma element, and $\tilde{\chi}$ is the observed EVPA in the plane of the sky seen by the observer, measured clockwise from some reference direction.

We next introduce a unit vector \mathbf{l} normal to the plane containing \mathbf{n} and the reference direction in the plane of the sky. We choose the direction of the projection of the jet axis to the plane of the sky as a reference direction, so that $\mathbf{l} = \{0, 1, 0\}$. Then,

$$\cos \tilde{\chi} = \hat{\mathbf{e}} \cdot (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{l}), \quad \sin \tilde{\chi} = \hat{\mathbf{e}} \cdot \mathbf{l}, \quad (5)$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{e}}$ is a unit vector in the direction of the electric field of the wave.

Calculation of the Stokes parameters using Eqs. (2) is not as straightforward as in the case of a plasma at rest. Several key ingredients need to be taken into account in the case of relativistically moving synchrotron sources (Cocke & Holm 1972, Blandford & Königl 1979, Bjornsson 1982, Ginzburg 1989). First, the synchrotron emissivity depends on the angle between the direction of an emitted photon and the magnetic field in the plasma rest frame. Second, since emission is boosted by the bulk relativistic motion, the position angle of the linear polarization rotates parallel to the $\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{v}$ plane. The fractional polarization emitted by each element remains the same, but the directions of the polarization vector of the radiation emitted by different elements are rotated by different amounts. This leads to the effective depolarization of the total emission. The theoretical maximum fractional polarization for a homogeneous field can be achieved only for a uniform plane-parallel velocity field. Third, integration along the line of sight and over the image of the jet in the plane of the sky for unresolved jets is best carried out in the laboratory frame (the frame where the source is at rest as a whole).

Let \mathbf{n}' be a unit vector in the direction of the wave vector in the plasma rest frame, and $\hat{\mathbf{B}}'$ be a unit vector along the magnetic field in the plasma rest frame. The electric field of a linearly polarized electromagnetic wave \mathbf{e}' is directed along the unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{e}}' = \mathbf{n}' \times \hat{\mathbf{B}}'$ and the magnetic

field of the wave \mathbf{b}' is directed along the unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{b}}' = \mathbf{n}' \times \hat{\mathbf{e}}'$. Making the Lorentz boost to the observer frame, we find (Lyutikov, Pariev & Blandford 2003)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{n}' &= \frac{\mathbf{n} + \Gamma \mathbf{v} \left(\frac{\Gamma}{\Gamma+1} (\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v}) - 1 \right)}{\Gamma (1 - (\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v}))}, \\ \hat{\mathbf{e}} &= \frac{\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{q}'}{\sqrt{q'^2 - (\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{q}')^2}}, \\ \mathbf{q}' &= \hat{\mathbf{B}}' + \mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \hat{\mathbf{B}}') - \frac{\Gamma}{1+\Gamma} (\hat{\mathbf{B}}' \cdot \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{v},\end{aligned}\quad (6)$$

where here and in all further expressions we set $c = 1$. We can express the rest-frame unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{B}}'$ in terms of the unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{B}}$ along the magnetic field in the laboratory frame. Assuming ideal MHD, there is no electric field in the plasma rest frame, $\mathbf{E}' = 0$. We then obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mathbf{B}} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (\hat{\mathbf{B}}' \cdot \mathbf{v})^2}} \left(\hat{\mathbf{B}}' - \frac{\Gamma}{1+\Gamma} (\hat{\mathbf{B}}' \cdot \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{v} \right), \\ \hat{\mathbf{B}}' &= \frac{(1+\Gamma)\hat{\mathbf{B}} + \Gamma^2(\hat{\mathbf{B}} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{v}}{(1+\Gamma)\sqrt{1 + \Gamma^2(\hat{\mathbf{B}} \cdot \mathbf{v})^2}},\end{aligned}\quad (7)$$

to get

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mathbf{e}} &= \frac{\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{q}}{\sqrt{q^2 - (\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{q})^2}}, \\ \mathbf{q} &= \hat{\mathbf{B}} + \mathbf{n} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \hat{\mathbf{B}}).\end{aligned}\quad (8)$$

This is a general expression giving the polarization vector in terms of the observed quantities $\hat{\mathbf{B}}$, \mathbf{n} and \mathbf{v} .

Relativistic aberration makes the observed electric field in the wave non-orthogonal to the observed B field and to its projection on the sky. Due to the conservation of $\mathbf{e}' \cdot (\mathbf{b}' + \mathbf{B}')$, we find that (see also Blandford & Königl (1979))

$$\mathbf{e} \cdot \mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}) \cdot (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{e}).\quad (9)$$

For example, the angle between $\hat{\mathbf{e}}$ (which lies in the plane of the sky) and $\hat{\mathbf{B}}$ is

$$\cos \zeta = \hat{\mathbf{e}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{B}} = \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{B}} \cdot \mathbf{n})(\hat{\mathbf{B}} \cdot (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{v}))}{\sqrt{q^2 - (\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{q})^2}}\quad (10)$$

which is, in general, not equal to zero. The observed electric field is orthogonal to the observed B field if either $\hat{\mathbf{B}}$ lies in the $\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{v}$ plane or $(\hat{\mathbf{B}} \cdot \mathbf{n}) = 0$.

Next, we apply the above general relations to the case of synchrotron emission by a thin cylindrical shell carrying toroidal magnetic field and moving uniformly with velocity β parallel to

its axis in the z direction. The shell is viewed at an angle θ with respect to its axis, so that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v} &= \beta\{0, 0, 1\} \\ \mathbf{n} &= \{\sin \theta, 0, \cos \theta\}\end{aligned}\quad (11)$$

Let the magnetic field \mathbf{B}' in the emitting shell in the jet frame be helical:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{B}' &= B'_\phi\{-\sin \phi, \cos \phi, 0\} + B'_z\{0, 0, 1\} = B' \sin \psi'\{-\sin \phi, \cos \phi, 0\} + B' \cos \psi'\{0, 0, 1\} \\ \mathbf{B}' &= B' \hat{\mathbf{B}}', \quad \hat{\mathbf{B}}' = \sin \psi'\{-\sin \phi, \cos \phi, 0\} + \cos \psi'\{0, 0, 1\}\end{aligned}\quad (12)$$

where ψ' is the magnetic field pitch angle in the shell rest frame, $\hat{\mathbf{B}}'$ is a unit vector along the magnetic field in the shell frame, and B' is the magnitude of the field. At this point, we are interested in the emission of a single shell and do not specify, for the moment, the radial dependence of the magnetic fields and emissivities. This is considered in Section 4.

For this particular choice of geometry, we find

$$\mathbf{n}' = \mathcal{D}\{\sin \theta, 0, \Gamma(\cos \theta - \beta)\}, \quad (13)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{B}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2 \cos^2 \psi'}}\{-\sin \psi' \sin \phi, \cos \phi \sin \psi', \frac{\cos \psi'}{\Gamma}\}, \quad (14)$$

$$\cos \chi' = (\mathbf{n}' \cdot \hat{\mathbf{B}}') = \mathcal{D}(\Gamma \cos \psi'(\cos \theta - \beta) - \sin \theta \sin \phi \sin \psi'), \quad (15)$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{B}}$ is the unit vector along the magnetic field in the laboratory (observer) frame. Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mathbf{B}} \cdot \mathbf{n} &= \frac{\cos \theta \cos \psi' - \Gamma \sin \theta \sin \phi \sin \psi'}{\Gamma \sqrt{1 - \beta^2 \cos^2 \psi'}}, \\ \hat{\mathbf{B}} \cdot \mathbf{v} &= \frac{\beta \cos \psi'}{\Gamma \sqrt{1 - \beta^2 \cos^2 \psi'}}, \\ \hat{\mathbf{B}} \cdot \mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{v} &= -\frac{\beta \sin \theta \sin \psi' \cos \phi}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2 \cos^2 \psi'}}\end{aligned}\quad (16)$$

The pitch angle in the laboratory frame, ψ' is larger than in the rest frame:

$$\tan \psi = \Gamma \tan \psi'. \quad (17)$$

As we have already pointed out, one of the main effects of the relativistic Lorentz transformation is that the observed magnetic field and polarization vectors are not, in general, orthogonal (Blandford & Königl 1979). For cylindrical jets, the expression for the angle ζ is too lengthy to be reproduced here (see also Appendix A). The dependence of ζ on ϕ is plotted in Fig. 6. In Fig. 7, we plot the observed relative orientations of the electric field in the wave and the magnetic field projected onto the plane of the sky. Note that, for a stationary jet, the electric field is always perpendicular to the magnetic field, while this is no longer true for a relativistically moving jet. In

fact, the electric field of the wave may become almost parallel to the magnetic field for some viewing angles.

The degree of linear polarization of the observed radiation is $\Pi = \sqrt{Q^2 + U^2}/I$. The resultant EVPA measured by the observer, $\tilde{\chi}_{\text{res}}$, is obtained from

$$\cos 2\tilde{\chi}_{\text{res}} = \frac{Q}{\sqrt{Q^2 + U^2}}, \quad \sin 2\tilde{\chi}_{\text{res}} = \frac{U}{\sqrt{Q^2 + U^2}}, \quad 0 \leq \tilde{\chi}_{\text{res}} < \pi. \quad (18)$$

It can be verified that, for a cylindrically symmetric flow and magnetic field, the change of ϕ to $\pi - \phi$ in the integrals (2) does not change the value of Q and the sign of U is reversed. Therefore, the Stokes parameter U integrates to zero. Consequently, if $Q > 0$ then $\tilde{\chi}_{\text{res}} = 0$, and if $Q < 0$ then $\tilde{\chi}_{\text{res}} = \pi/2$. Thus, *for circular jets, the observed EVPA can be either parallel or perpendicular to the projection of the jet axis onto the plane of the sky*. This is true for differentially rotating jets as well (Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak 2003). This naturally explains the observed bimodal distribution of the jet EVPAs.

Since $U = 0$ for a circular jet, we define the fractional polarization as $\Pi = Q/I$, retaining the sign of Q , so that Π can be smaller than zero. For $\Pi > 0$, the polarization is along the jet, while the polarization is orthogonal to the jet for $\Pi < 0$.

Given that the angle between the observed EVPA and observed magnetic field for individual radiating plasma elements are not, in general, orthogonal, depending on the viewing conditions, we can ask why it is the case that reasonably clear patterns have appeared in the relationship between the observed EVPAs and the local jet direction. This can be understood, in part, as a consequence of the fact that the resolution provided by VLBI observations is often insufficient to fully resolve the jets in the transverse direction, so that the EVPA integrated over the jet cross section is observed. This is essentially equivalent to the statement above that the observed EVPA *integrated over a cylindrical jet* is expected to be either parallel or perpendicular to the projection of the jet axis onto the plane of the sky. The observed EVPA will essentially be determined by the ratio B'_ϕ/B'_z ; if the jets are approximately cylindrical, the observed EVPA can be used to draw conclusions about the ratio of the toroidal and poloidal magnetic field components in the rest frame, but it is not always possible to translate these into unambiguous conclusions about this ratio in the observer's frame.

3. Hollow cylindrical jets

3.1. Unresolved hollow jets (cylindrical shell)

We first consider cylindrical jets with their emissivity confined to a narrow cylindrical shell. In order to interpret observations that do not resolve the transverse dependence of the polarization across the jet, we integrate the emissivity of the shell over the azimuthal angle in the observer's frame. For a constant velocity field of the shell, all relativistic effects can be accounted for by the

Lorentz transformation: the degree of polarization can be calculated in the jet rest frame for the viewing angle in the jet rest frame θ' obtained from expression (13)

$$\sin \theta' = \frac{\sin \theta}{\Gamma(1 - \beta \cos \theta)}, \quad \cos \theta' = \frac{\cos \theta - \beta}{1 - \beta \cos \theta}, \quad (19)$$

where $0 < \theta < \pi$ and $0 < \theta' < \pi$. In addition, the Lorentz transformation of the jet magnetic field is $B_z = B'_z$, $B_\phi = \Gamma B'_\phi$ and results in the change of the pitch angle described by expression (17). Though corresponding non-relativistic calculations have been done by Laing (1981), the interpretation of these calculations for a relativistically moving shell is different.

The general expressions for polarization given in Section 2 can be simplified considerably for non-relativistic jets. Setting $\beta = 0$, we find

$$\begin{aligned} \sin^2 \chi' &= \cos^2 \psi' \sin^2 \theta + \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\theta \sin 2\psi' \sin \phi + (\cos^2 \theta + \cos^2 \phi \sin^2 \theta) \sin^2 \psi' \\ \cos 2\tilde{\chi} &= \frac{\cos^2 \phi \sin^2 \psi' - (\cos \psi' \sin \theta + \cos \theta \sin \phi \sin \psi')^2}{1 - (\cos \theta \cos \psi' - \sin \theta \sin \phi \sin \psi')^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

The degree of polarization Π from a cylindrical shell populated by particles with various power-law indices $p = 1, 2.4, 3$ are plotted in Fig. 8 as a function of the viewing angle and pitch angle (see also Laing 1981). (A typical power-law index for pc-scale jets is $p = 2.4$, which corresponds to a spectral index of $\alpha = -0.7$, $S_\nu \propto \nu^\alpha$; see, for example, Gabuzda & Gómez (2001); Gabuzda et al. (2001)).² As can be seen from Fig. 8 (positive values indicate polarization along the jet, and negative values polarization orthogonal to the jet), there is a weak dependence of the polarization on the spectral index. In particular, flatter spectra (smaller p) produce more complicated polarization structure, so that *sources with flatter spectra are more likely to produce a change of polarization from parallel to perpendicular*.

For relativistic jets, we adopt $p = 2.4$ as a fiducial number and plot the fractional polarization for various viewing angles and pitch angles in the rest frame and the laboratory frame (Fig. 9). In addition, we plot in Fig. 10 the fractional polarization as a function of the bulk Lorentz factor Γ for $\theta = 10^\circ$.

Several conclusions can be drawn upon analyzing these plots. Consider first the polarization as a function of the viewing angle for various rest-frame pitch angles (Fig. 9a). For extreme values of the pitch angle in the rest frame (purely toroidal magnetic field, $\psi' = \pi/2$, and purely poloidal magnetic field $\psi' = 0$), the corresponding polarization is along ($\Pi > 0$) and orthogonal to ($\Pi < 0$)

²A particularly simple case is $p = 3$, when the integrations in Eqs. (2) can be done exactly (see also Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak (2003) for another exactly integrable case). We find for the average polarization of an unresolved shell

$$\Pi = -\frac{3(1 + 3 \cos 2\psi') \sin^2 \theta}{2(5 - \cos 2\theta - \cos 2\psi' - 3 \cos 2\theta \cos 2\psi')} \quad (21)$$

the jet. For large pitch angles, $\pi/3 \leq \psi' \leq \pi/2$, the polarization always remains along the axis, peaking at $\theta \sim 1/\Gamma$ and decreasing sharply for $\theta\Gamma \gg 1$. For intermediate pitch angles, $\psi' \leq \pi/3$, the polarization can change from parallel to orthogonal depending on the viewing angle, with such a change being more likely to occur for lower values of p . For smaller pitch angles, $\psi' \leq \pi/4$, the polarization is high, weakly dependent on the viewing angle, and oriented orthogonal to the jet.

Thus, the average polarization is a very sensitive function of the jet parameters. For some jet parameters, the polarization properties are fairly constant, while, in some cases, they can change appreciably due to small variations in the jet parameters.

Most importantly, the observation of polarization along the jet requires that the toroidal magnetic field *in the jet frame* be at least of the order of the poloidal field. For relativistic jets, this means that such jets are *strongly dominated by the toroidal field in the observer's frame*, $B_\phi/B_z \sim \Gamma B'_\phi/B'_z \gg 1$. In cases when a change of sign is seen, we can place strong constraints on the internal pitch angle, since such transitions can be seen only for a limited range of pitch angles, $\pi/3 \leq \psi' \leq \pi/4$. A 90° change of the EVPA can be initiated by a small deviation of the jet direction (if $\theta \sim 1/\Gamma$, in order to change the observed EVPA by an angle of the order of unity, the real direction may change by $\Delta\theta \ll 1/\Gamma$), acceleration of the jet or injection of a toroidal magnetic flux. On the other hand, a relativistic jet viewed at a large angle, $\theta \gg 1/\Gamma$, will be either weakly polarized along the jet (for $B'_\phi \geq B'_z$) or strongly polarized orthogonally to the jet (for $B'_\phi \leq B'_z$); see Fig 9a.

3.2. Resolved hollow jets (cylindrical shells)

We next turn to resolved jets. If emission is confined to a narrow cylindrical shell, $K_e \propto \delta(r - R_j)$ then integration over dS gives a multiplier $h/\arcsin h/R_j$, so that polarization becomes

$$\Pi = \frac{p+1}{p+7/3} \cos 2\tilde{\chi} \quad (22)$$

In Fig. 11 we plot the fractional polarization for shells moving with $\Gamma = 10$, for various pitch angles ψ' and viewing angles θ .

First, note that the polarization close to the edge of the observed jet is always orthogonal to the jet. This can easily be understood from simple geometrical considerations: at the visible edge of the cylindrical shell, the projection of the toroidal magnetic field onto the plane of the sky becomes zero, so that only the poloidal magnetic field contributes to the observed synchrotron emission, and this part of the jet is observed to be polarized orthogonal to the jet axis. For $\theta \ll 1/\Gamma$ and $\theta \gg 1/\Gamma$, the polarization in the central part of the jet is along the symmetry axis. For intermediate values of $\theta \sim 1/\Gamma$, the polarization in the central parts of the jet is longitudinal if the pitch angle $\psi' > 45^0$ and orthogonal if $\psi' < 45^0$. This can explain in a natural way the fact that resolved jets sometimes have polarization aligned with the jet in the central region and orthogonal to the jet at the edge.

Second, *polarization observations of resolved jets can be used to infer the relative orientation of the spin of the central object that launched the jet (black hole or disk): whether it is aligned or counter-aligned with the jet axis.* This possibility comes from the fact that the *left and right-handed helices produce different polarization signatures*, see Figs. 11. In order to make a distinction between the two choices, it is necessary to determine independently the angle at which the jet is viewed in its rest frame. For relativistic jets, this amounts to determining the product $\theta\Gamma$: if $\theta\Gamma < 1$ then the jet is viewed “head-on,” while the jet is viewed “tail-on” if $\theta\Gamma > 1$. A right-handed magnetic helix viewed head-on produces the same polarization signature as a left-handed helix viewed tail-on.

We expect that the magnetic field lines in the jet are retrograde with respect to the black hole spin. Thus, if the spin of the central object is oriented along the z direction, the magnetic field lines will form a left-handed helix (see Fig. 12). Suppose next that we view the jet at angles $\theta\Gamma < 1$, so that, in the frame of the jet, a circular left-handed helix is moving toward an observer along the z axis. Let us denote by l the coordinate along the unit vector $\mathbf{l} = \{0, 1, 0\}$ in the plane of the sky parallel to the y axis. In this case, the parts of the jet located at positive l will be more preferentially polarized along the jet (that is, Π will be larger), than the parts of the jet located at negative l . This conclusion is invariant with respect to sign changes of both the B_z and B_ϕ components of the magnetic field. A spiral magnetic field given by Eqs. (12) forms a right-handed spiral, which corresponds to the spin of the central object being counter-aligned with the direction of the jet, i.e. the black hole or accretion disk rotates clockwise when viewed by an observer looking down the jet. Then, parts of the jet located at positive l (the sign of l is the same as the sign of y) will have smaller Π than parts of the jet located at negative l . The latter behavior is seen for the curves $\theta = 1/(2\Gamma)$ and $\theta = 1/(10\Gamma)$ in Fig. 11a,b.

In the absence of rotation, the jet axis can be defined by the symmetry of the intensity profile, so that the direction of the black hole spin can be determined from the asymmetry of the polarization profile with respect to this axis (see Fig. 11a, b, and d). If an observer positions himself along the projection of the jet onto the plane of the sky (z -axis on Fig. 12) with his head toward the end point of the jet and his feet toward the core of the AGN, then the side of the jet with negative l will be on his left side, and the side of the jet with positive l will be on his right side. Then, a head-on viewed jet ($\theta < 1/\Gamma$) emanating from a clockwise rotating central engine has Π larger on the left side of its image on the sky, while a head-on viewed jet emanating from a counter-clockwise rotating central engine has Π larger on the right side of its image on the sky. The opposite holds for a tail-on viewed jet ($\theta > 1/\Gamma$): jets emanating from a clockwise rotating central engine have Π larger on the right side of their image on the sky, while jets emanating from a counter-clockwise rotating central engine have Π larger on the left side of its image on the sky. When $\theta \approx 1/\Gamma$, i.e. when the jet is viewed orthogonal to its axis in the frame comoving with the jet, the $\Pi(l)$ curve becomes symmetric with respect to the jet axis (Fig. 11c). The caveat here is how one can know if a jet is viewed head-on or tail-on in its rest frame. Because the parsec-scale counterjet is almost always not observed, we do not readily see how to overcome this caveat.

4. Emission from "filled" jets

To find the total emission from a jet, we must know the distribution of the emissivity and the internal structure of the jet, both of which are highly uncertain functions. It is probable that jets are electromagnetically dominated on parsec scales (Lynden-Bell 1996, 2003; Ustyugova et al. 2000; Li et al. 2001; Lovelace et al. 2002; Lovelace & Romanova 2003, see also Section 6), so that their structure is determined by relativistic force-free electrodynamics. In this work, we assume that the jets are strongly magnetized and are described by relativistic force-free electrodynamics. In Appendix B, we present equations of relativistic force-free electrodynamics and suggest a simple method that can be used to find a broad class of solutions for cylindrical, relativistic, force-free pinches given the corresponding non-relativistic pinches.

There are many ways in which the poloidal magnetic field, electric charge and poloidal current can be distributed inside a jet. This should depend primarily on the jet launching conditions (as boundary conditions) and the evolution of the jet as it propagates. At the moment, there is no general agreement about the structure of jets. Furthermore, it is not even clear if jets carry a total poloidal current and total poloidal magnetic flux. It is likely that jets do carry total current, as models for the launching and collimation of jets show (Blandford & Payne 1982; Contopoulos & Lovelace 1994; Ustyugova et al. 2000; Lovelace et al. 2002). Whether there is a total poloidal magnetic flux is less clear. Most models for jet launching assume that there is a large poloidal magnetic flux at the base of the jet, but physically it is hard to see how this large-scale field survives in a turbulent disk. An alternative possibility is that magnetorotational instability operating in the disk produces complicated field structures with negligible total poloidal flux. One advantage of these models is that the energy associated with current reversals can be used to power the jet (e.g. Lovelace, Newman & Romanova 1997).

There are a multitude of possible jet profiles, each giving a different polarization structure (also with a number of different prescriptions for the jet emissivity). Given these uncertainties, we consider below three types of jet structure: (i) a diffuse pinch with large poloidal and toroidal field fluxes, (ii) a particular example of an infinite (single) reverse-field pinch with vanishing total poloidal magnetic flux and (iii) a high-order reverse-pinch configuration. We believe that these three sample jet structures are generic examples and somewhat at the extreme ends of expected cases in terms of their total poloidal field flux, which is logarithmically divergent for (i) and zero for (ii) and (iii). The current density is concentrated toward the center of the jet in all cases considered, forming the core of the jet. The total energy of the magnetic field is also finite, and the spatial distribution of the magnetic-field energy is concentrated inside a core of the same typical radius as the current-carrying core of the jet. Below we denote the radius of the jet core as R_j and its inverse as $a = 1/R_j$.

In addition, the distribution of emissivity in the jet must also be specified. We consider here the consequences of the hypothesis that dissipation and particle acceleration occur throughout the jet volume, as opposed to the dissipation being localized in current reconnection layers (Lyutikov &

Uzdensky 2003) or resonant layers of electromagnetic perturbations (Beresnyak, Istomin & Pariev 2003). Although the exact dissipation rate may depend on micro-physical and kinetic processes, it is reasonable to assume that the dissipation rate is given by the Ohmic heating in the rest frame of a plasma element, j'^2/σ' , where j' is the absolute value of the current density and σ' is the conductivity in a frame comoving with the plasma element. Some fraction of this dissipated energy is then converted into heat and another fraction to accelerated particles. We assume that the power-law exponent for the accelerated particles is the same throughout the jet volume, but that the number density of relativistic particles scales as $K_e \propto j'^2$.

However, we cannot be certain that the dissipation rate of the magnetic field is proportional to j'^2 . Therefore, we consider another prescription for the number density of emitting particles in the comoving frame, $K_e \propto B'^2$. This corresponds to the condition of minimizing the sum of the energy densities of the magnetic field and relativistic particles, frequently used to obtain estimates of physical conditions in radio sources (e.g., Burbidge 1956; Pacholczyk 1970; Kronberg et al. 2001). In our case of strongly magnetized jets, the energy of the relativistic particles should be much smaller than the energy of the magnetic fields, but it may still be reasonable to assume that the particle energy density is proportional to B'^2 .

4.1. Diffuse pinch

The non-relativistic force-free diffuse pinch is given by:

$$B_\phi^{nr} = \frac{ar}{1 + (ar)^2} B_0, \quad B_z^{nr} = \frac{1}{1 + (ar)^2} B_0 \quad (23)$$

To calculate the polarization properties of such a jet, we can perform the integration of the Stokes parameters (2) and calculate the degree of polarization Π for the whole jet in a frame comoving with the jet, then use Eqs. (19) to express Π as a function of the viewing angle in the laboratory reference frame. Alternatively, we can find the jet structure in the observer's frame, use relations (8) to calculate the polarization vector in the observer's frame and perform the integration of the Stokes parameters (2) in the observer's frame. The equivalence of the results of both calculations provides a consistency check.

The diffuse-pinch configuration can be generalized to the relativistic case using the procedure described in Appendix B. The Lorentz transformation along the z axis will lead to a radial electric field and distributed charge densities (if a non-relativistic pinch had a line current, a line charge would also appear in the relativistic case). First, we consider jets with $\Gamma = \text{constant}$. The fields in the laboratory frame are then:

$$B_z = \frac{B_0}{1 + (ar)^2}, \quad B_\phi = \frac{ar\Gamma B_0}{1 + (ar)^2}, \quad E_r = \sqrt{\Gamma^2 - 1} \frac{arB_0}{1 + (ar)^2}. \quad (24)$$

The corresponding current density in the frame comoving with the plasma element is

$$j'_z = \frac{aB_0}{2\pi(1+a^2r^2)^2}, \quad j'_\phi = \frac{a^2B_0r}{2\pi(1+a^2r^2)^2}, \quad j'^2 = \frac{a^2B_0^2}{4\pi^2(1+a^2r^2)^3}. \quad (25)$$

The diffuse pinch has a logarithmically divergent total poloidal flux $\Phi_z = \ln(1+(ar)^2)B_0\pi/a^2$, a pitch angle that increases with radius, $B_\phi/B_z = \Gamma ar$, and a total poloidal current $I_0 = B_0\Gamma/(2a)$.

We integrated this expression from $r = 0$ to large radii, $r \gg 1/a$, for two cases: when the emissivity is $\kappa \propto j'^2$ and $\kappa \propto B'^2$. The results are presented in Fig. 13. The polarization vector is always perpendicular to the jet axis.

4.2. Jets with reversed field pinch and zero poloidal flux

Next we calculate the polarization from a jet with zero total poloidal flux, $\int_0^\infty B_z r dr = 0$. This case corresponds to a large-scale magnetic field at the base of the jet generated by the disk itself, as opposed to the case of non-vanishing poloidal flux of an advected magnetic field. The following choice of force-free magnetic field (in the laboratory frame) is representative of the case with vanishing total flux:

$$B_z^{nr} = B_0 \frac{1-a^2r^2}{(1+a^2r^2)^3}, \quad B_\phi^{nr} = B_0\Gamma \frac{ar\sqrt{2/15}}{(1+a^2r^2)^3} \sqrt{30+10a^2r^2+15a^4r^4+6a^6r^6+a^8r^8}. \quad (26)$$

(see Fig. 14). We have the following expressions for the components of the current:

$$j'_\phi = \frac{cB_0}{4\pi} 4a^2r \frac{2-a^2r^2}{(1+a^2r^2)^4}, \quad (27)$$

$$j'_z = \frac{cB_0}{4\pi} \frac{2\sqrt{30}a(a^2r^2-1)(a^2r^2-2)}{(1+a^2r^2)^4 \sqrt{30+10a^2r^2+15a^4r^4+6a^6r^6+a^8r^8}}. \quad (28)$$

The results of the polarization calculations for the number density of particles $K_e \propto j'^2$ and $K_e \propto B'^2$ are presented in Fig. 14. Similar to the case of a diffuse pinch, the electric vector of the wave is orthogonal to the jet axis.

4.3. Jets with multiple reversals of the axial magnetic field

As a further illustration, we consider the possibility that the axial magnetic field in the jet has multiple reversals. We also impose the condition that the total flux of the axial magnetic field vanishes, $\int_0^\infty B_z r dr = 0$. This situation may correspond to a magnetic field produced as a result of amplification by the magnetorotational instability (Balbus & Hawley 1991, 1998) or a magnetic dynamo (Pariev, Colgate & Finn 2004) operating in the accretion disk. The loops of magnetic field can rise above the accretion disk, reconnect, and form multiply reversed magnetic field structure

carrying no total poloidal flux. We choose the following form of the axial magnetic field in the frame comoving with the jet:

$$B_z^{nr} = B_0 \frac{\cos \lambda ar}{(1 + a^2 r^2)}, \quad (29)$$

where $\lambda = 0.879$ is chosen to satisfy the condition $\int_0^\infty B_z r dr = 0$. B_ϕ^{nr} is then found by integrating numerically the nonrelativistic force-free equilibrium equation. $B_\phi^{nr} \propto 1/r$ for $r \gg a$. The toroidal magnetic field and electric field in the laboratory frame can be calculated from Eq. (B4). The current density in the frame comoving with the jet is calculated as

$$j'_\phi = \frac{2a^2 r \cos(\lambda ar)}{(1 + a^2 r^2)^2} + \frac{\lambda a \sin(\lambda ar)}{1 + a^2 r^2}, \quad j'^2 = j'_\phi \left(1 + \frac{B_z^{nr2}}{B_\phi^{nr2}} \right). \quad (30)$$

The radial dependencies of the fields in the frame comoving with the jet, $B'_z(r)$, $B'_\phi(r)$, and the two prescriptions for the number density of emitting particles, $K_e \propto j'^2$ and $K_e \propto B'^2$, are shown in Fig. 15a.

We perform the integration of the Stokes parameters for a constant emissivity from $r = 0$ to large radii, $r \gg 1/a$. The results are presented in Fig. 15. The polarization vector is perpendicular to the jet axis. The profile of $j'^2(r)$ is more concentrated toward the inner core of the jet than the profile of B'^2 . Therefore, the degree of polarization in the case $K_e \propto j'^2$ is lower (more orthogonal to the jet axis) than the degree of polarization in the case $K_e \propto B'^2$. This is true for all three cases of force-free fields in the “filled” jets considered in this section.

4.4. Emission from “filled” jets without shear: conclusion

The three examples of jet profiles and two prescriptions for emissivity we have considered illustrate that the polarization remains perpendicular to the jet axis in all cases. Parallel polarization cannot be produced in models in which the energy density of the relativistic particles is $\propto j'^2$. In the case when the energy density of the emitting particles is $\propto B'^2$, the degree of polarization is small. The parallel polarization observed in some (many) sources cannot be explained using models in which the relativistic particles are distributed across the jet. The reason is that the current distribution and magnetic fields are highest on the axis, where the magnetic field in the jet rest frame is dominated by the poloidal field, so that the average emission is dominated by regions with large poloidal field. Thus, in order to produce parallel polarization *the emitting particles must be concentrated in the regions of stronger toroidal field*, closer to the edges of the jet.³

The results of this section indicate the possibility that *particle acceleration occurs selectively at the periphery of the jet*. Another possibility are strongly sheared jets, in which the emission

³More precisely, the emission-weighted average pitch angle in the jet rest frame must not be small. In the case of force-free jets, this can occur only not too close to the jet axis.

from the central parts (which are dominated by poloidal magnetic field in the comoving frame) is beamed away from us. We investigate this possibility next.

5. Emission from sheared jets

The jets considered in the previous section were all non-sheared, so that the degree of polarization can be derived in their rest frame and then the viewing angle transformed using the light-aberration formulas. In this section, we consider sheared jets, when the axial bulk velocity is a function of radius in the jet. In this case, there is no reference frame in which the entire jet is at rest. The fully relativistic approach for calculating the Stokes parameters for an arbitrarily moving medium described in Section 2 is needed. As a model problem, we assume that the jet internal structure corresponds to a diffuse pinch (Section 4.1). In addition, we chose the following scaling of the Lorentz factor with radius:

$$\Gamma = 1 + \frac{1}{1 + (ar)^2} (\Gamma_0 - 1), \quad (31)$$

so that the axis of the jet moves with Lorenz factor Γ_0 . Then, we follow the procedure for constructing the equilibrium of a relativistic force-free jet given in Appendix B.

As in Section 4, we investigate two example cases for the energy density of the relativistic emitting particles: $K_e \propto \mathbf{j}'^2$ and $K_e \propto B'^2$ (Fig. 16). Since there is no global reference frame in which the whole jet is at rest, the current density in the local comoving frame \mathbf{j}' is now, in general, not equal to the curl of \mathbf{B}^{nr} . To calculate \mathbf{j}' , we first calculate the current density $\mathbf{j} = \nabla \times \mathbf{B}/(4\pi)$ and charge density $\rho_e = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}/(4\pi)$ in the laboratory frame. Then, we make a Lorentz transformation of the current 4-vector to the local comoving frame of the plasma element to obtain \mathbf{j}' . The result is that still $\mathbf{j}' = \nabla \times \mathbf{B}^{nr}/(4\pi)$, i.e., terms containing $d\Gamma/dr$ cancel out in the expression for \mathbf{j}' . The reason for this cancellation is that the radial force balance is not broken by the introduction of the shear in the axial flow in the jet (see Appendix B).

At small viewing angles $\theta \leq 1/\Gamma_0$, the emission is dominated by the central regions, where the magnetic field in the rest frame of the moving plasma is mostly poloidal, so the polarization is perpendicular to the jet axis. At larger viewing angles $\theta \geq 1/\Gamma_0$, the emission from the central parts of the jet is beamed away, so that the average polarization may be along the jet.

6. Electromagnetically dominated jets

In this paper, we present polarization calculations that indicate that large-scale magnetic fields may be responsible for the polarization observed in parsec-scale jets in AGNs. In order to produce the substantial degrees of polarization that are observed in these jets, the total energy density of the ordered component of the magnetic field must be at least comparable to the random component. This raises the question of how strong the magnetic fields in AGN jets can be.

Below we discuss the possibility, that the energy is transported along the jets mainly in the form of the Poynting flux. It may be possible to overcome the difficulties of pure electron–positron beam models as well as ion-dominated models. Qualitatively, electromagnetic jets (or, rather, magnetic helices) will be toroidally dominated in the observer frame on parsec scales due to the conservation of the poloidal magnetic flux and the poloidal current. As we have shown in this paper, this is consistent with observations. If a jet has a net poloidal current, the self-pinching of this current will tend to collimate it. In turn, the poloidal currents can become unstable to the excitation of anomalous resistivity and the subsequent development of resistive instabilities. The result will be the dissipation of poloidal currents or, equivalently, of the toroidal magnetic field. The dissipated energy can go primarily into the acceleration of electrons, similar to the case of solar flares. Thus, *a current that contributes to the jet collimation provides a natural source of energy for the re-energization of the jet via magnetic dissipation* (e.g. reconnection).

If the jets are magnetically dominated, the energy ultimately comes from the rotational energy of the central source (disk or black hole). It is first converted into magnetic energy by the dynamo action of the unipolar inductor (e.g., via the Blandford–Znajek mechanism), propagated in the form of a Poynting-flux-dominated flow and then dissipated by current instabilities at large distances from the sources.

Let us summarize the advantages of the magnetically dominated model for the energy transport in AGN jets (see also Blandford 2002; Lyutikov 2003).

- **“High quality”.** The energy stored in the low entropy electromagnetic outflow has a “high quality”. It can be efficiently converted into high-frequency electromagnetic radiation *far from the source*. For example, recent RHESSI and TRACE observations of the Sun indicate that the primary energy output in reconnection is in the form of *nonthermal electrons*, and only a small fraction goes into heating and bulk motion (Benz & Saint–Hilaire 2003).
- **Variability** Recent observations of high-energy emission from blazars with very short variability time scales (as short as 20 minutes in Mrk 421, Gaidos et al. (1996); Cui (2004)) have stressed again the need for *in situ* acceleration, since the synchrotron cooling times for the X-ray and especially γ -ray emitting electrons are an order of magnitude shorter than the light-travel time from the core (and often shorter than the light-crossing time of the emitting region itself).

Magnetic fields are strongly nonlinear systems: slow evolution during which magnetic stresses build up can lead to the accumulation of a large amount of free energy, which is released in explosive events on a short time scale (of the order of the Alfvén time scale) as the system crosses the stability threshold. Such events happening in the central engine, close to the black hole and accretion disk, could be the source of flaring events that result in the emergence of new bright knots. Small-scale reconnection events could produce quasi-steady high-energy emission, analogous to the micro-flare paradigm for the quiescent emission of the solar corona (e.g., Benz & Krucker 1998; Krucker & Benz 2000). In addition, variations in

the surrounding medium may lead to restructuring of the jet, accompanied by dissipation (Choudhuri & Konigl 1986). The magnetic field dissipation can be internal, and does not necessarily lead to the global disruption of the system, as happens, for example, in sawtooth oscillations in TOKAMAKs (e.g., Kadomtsev 1975). Current-driven instabilities in jets may proceed in a similar way (Appl, Lery & Baty 2000).

- **Particle acceleration** Dissipation of the magnetic field leads to particle acceleration that produces a power-law distribution of accelerated particles, as is exemplified by solar flares, TOKAMAK measurements, and laboratory Z-pinches. However, the physics of magnetic dissipation (with reconnection being the prime example) is highly uncertain: it depends critically on the kinetic and geometric properties of the plasma, which are very hard to measure observationally. This situation can be contrasted with shock acceleration schemes, where a qualitatively correct result for the spectrum of accelerated particles (a kinetic property!) can be derived from simple *macroscopic* considerations.

In spite of these difficulties, acceleration (or pre-acceleration) of electrons in some type of reconnection layers may provide an alternative possibility (or the first stage) for shock acceleration. First, we know that it works on the Sun. Second, magnetic dissipation can accelerate particles from a thermal bath, without a need for pre-acceleration. (Recall that only electrons with $\gamma_e \geq \Gamma_s m_p/m_e$ can be accelerated at a relativistic shock; here Γ_s is the shock Lorentz factor, and m_p and m_e are the proton and electron masses). Third, acceleration in reconnection layers can produce very hard power-law spectra, $dn/d\gamma \sim \gamma^{-1}$, (Hoshino 2002; Larrabee, Lovelace & Romanova 2002). The fact that reconnection models can produce spectra which are prohibitively hard for shock acceleration can serve as a distinctive property of electromagnetic models.

- **Large scale stability and small scale dissipation.** Relativistic electromagnetic jets are expected to be less susceptible to instabilities due to interaction with the external medium, as well as internal instabilities. In the case of interactions with an external medium, the magnetic field has a stabilizing effect on the surface modes, especially if there is longitude shear and rotation of the jet (Istomin & Pariev 1994, 1996). On the other hand, the presence of velocity shear would lead to the formation of critical layers where dissipative effects become important (Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak 2003). Thus, rotation and shear can lead to large-scale stabilization and small-scale de-stabilization of the jet. The energy released due to small-scale dissipation could be used to power the jet luminosity.
- **Knots.** AGN jets have distinct structures along the jets in the form of knots, fainter bridges of emission, etc. These structures could be regions of enhanced dissipation, in which case they are likely to break cylindrical and/or translational symmetry along the jet; alternatively, they could be the jet structures that emit preferentially in our direction. Quasi-periodic bright knots are observed in the jets of many AGNs, such as M87 (Marshall et al. 2002), 3C273 (Marshall et al. 2001), and 4C 19.44/1354+195 (Sambruna et al. 2002). An intriguing possibility is that the quasi-periodic bright knots are associated with large-amplitude waves

propagating in the jet (Istomin & Pariev 1996; Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak 2003). These waves can be excited due to explosive reconnection events at the base of the jet. Alternatively, accretion disk instabilities and the evacuation and reformation of parts of an accretion disk could be the source of these large amplitude waves (Lovelace, Romanova & Newman 1994; Lovelace, Newman & Romanova 1997). The propagation of such waves in a radially inhomogeneous jet can be weakly dissipative, providing a means to energize particles in the jet (Beresnyak, Istomin & Pariev 2003).

At present, hydrodynamical models of AGN jets are much better developed (e.g. Hardee 2003). It remains to be seen if electromagnetic jets are able to reproduce equally well the large-scale dynamical behavior. In addition, radiation modeling of AGN spectra allowing for a two-zone structure of the magnetic field (low inside the acceleration region, high in the bulk) needs to be done.

7. Discussion and Conclusions

We have analyzed the polarization properties of the synchrotron emission of relativistic cylindrical jets with helical magnetic fields, taking into account the relativistic motion of the jet. We considered uniform radial profiles of the velocity of the jet as well as sheared velocity profiles in which the velocity is higher at the center of the jet and decreases to zero at the outer boundary of the jet. We have explored a number of fairly general magnetic-field structures and emission profiles, on which we base the following conclusions.

1. We stress again that, in case of a relativistically moving optically thin jets, the observed direction of the polarization *is not generally orthogonal* to the projected direction of the magnetic field. We accordingly encourage observers to always plot the direction of the electric field of the wave, not the “inferred direction of the magnetic field.” It is important to employ a correct Lorentz transformation of the polarization, regardless of the model considered: calculations of the polarization from internal shocks must take this effect into account as well.
2. To produce polarization along the jet axis, the emissivity weighted pitch angle of the magnetic field in the jet frame cannot be small. This can be achieved either (i) if a jet has a pinch configuration with no, one or many reversals *and* the jet emissivity is confined to a narrow region of radii where the toroidal magnetic field is of order of the poloidal field in the jet frame, or (ii) if the velocity of the jet changes with radius such that the relativistic beaming is maximum in a narrow range of radii closer to the outer boundary of the jet, where the toroidal magnetic field is of order of the poloidal field in the jet frame.
3. The polarization electric vector position angle (EVPA) integrated over the jet cross section

shows a bimodal distribution, being directed either along or orthogonal to the jet, in accordance with observations (Cawthorne et al. 1993; Gabuzda, Pushkarev & Cawthorne 2000).

4. Strongly beamed jets (viewed at $\theta \leq 1/\Gamma$) can have polarization directed along the jet axis only if the toroidal magnetic field strongly dominates over the poloidal field in the observer's frame, $B_\phi/B_z \geq \Gamma \gg 1$. This will be true if the toroidal field is at least comparable to the poloidal field in the jet frame. In this case, we have in the jet frame $B'_\phi \sim B'_z$, so that the jet is expected to be dynamically stable to pinches and kinks. When an orthogonal jump of the polarization position angle is seen along such jets, we can estimate $B_\phi/B_z \sim \Gamma \gg 1$. The occurrence of orthogonal jumps of polarization should be more prominent in sources with flatter spectra.
5. In resolved jets, the asymmetry of the polarization structure (e.g. with respect to the intensity profile) can be used to determine whether the spin axis of the central object is aligned or anti-aligned with the jet axis.
6. In a resolved cylindrical shell with $B'_\phi \sim B'_z$, the polarization in the central parts is along the jet, while the polarization at the jet edges is orthogonal to the jet axis, in accordance with observations (Attridge, Roberts & Wardle 1999; Pushkarev & Gabuzda 2002; Pushkarev et al. 2004). This provides further evidence that the jet emissivity is confined to a narrow region of radii at the periphery of the jet, where the toroidal magnetic field is of the order of the poloidal field in the jet frame.

These results support the possibility that the characteristic behavior of the polarization of AGN jets arises precisely because these jets carry helical magnetic fields. Additional support for this scenario comes from the observations of differential Faraday rotation across the jets of BL Lac objects, which can be understood as a natural consequence of a toroidal or helical magnetic-field configuration (Gabuzda, Murray & Cronin 2004), and the evidence that the circular polarization of AGN cores display a constant sign over long intervals (Homan, Attridge & Wardle 2001). Both of these last two effects argue in favor of the dominant role of large-scale magnetic fields in the jets. It is likewise not difficult to account for possible exceptions to the general tendencies stated above. For example a non-axisymmetric structure of the jet can give rise to a relative orientation of the EVPA relative to the jet that differs from 0 or 90° (there are theoretical grounds for non-axisymmetric jets, Choudhuri & Konigl (1986)). The curved jet in Fig. 1 may be viewed close to its axis, so that it may be represented by two quasi-cylindrical pieces smoothly changing direction at a merger point. Then, the resolved and unresolved EVPA will be approximately aligned with the axis of the cylindrical pieces because of the bimodality described above. The largest deviation of the EVPA from such alignment is expected to happen at the point of the jet bending. This is indeed the case for the EVPA plotted on Fig. 1: at the location of the bend, the EVPA makes an angle of almost 45° with the local direction of the middle axis of the brightness distribution there.

The conditions for having appreciable longitudinal polarization in a relativistic jet are more restrictive than those for orthogonal polarization. This is a purely geometrical effect. For a given

jet structure, the highest degree of longitudinal polarization will be observed when the jet is viewed at the angle $\theta \sim 1/\Gamma$. In this case, the line of sight is orthogonal to the jet axis in the jet rest frame. It is thought that, statistically, $\theta \sim 1/\Gamma$ for the pc-scale jets of core-dominated AGN, while most kpc-scale jets are viewed at angles $\theta \gg 1/\Gamma$ in the observer's rest frame, so that the line of sight makes a small angle with the jet axis in the comoving frame. Therefore, the observed kpc-scale jets should have orthogonal polarization more frequently than pc-scale jets. This stresses again that, *due to relativistic kinematic effects, it is not possible to make a firm conclusion about whether a jet is dominated by toroidal or poloidal fields based purely on the observed direction of polarization.*

Another implication of our calculations is that the polarization properties of an intrinsically similar jet and counter jet can be very different (if the counter jet is detected), due to the different angles that the line of sight makes with the jet magnetic field in the two cases. It follows from Fig. 9 that, in the counter jet, high degrees of polarization, $\geq 10\%$, can be directed only orthogonal to the jet axis, while low degrees of polarization can be either longitudinal or orthogonal. In the strongly relativistic limit $\Gamma \gg 1$, jets viewed at angles $\theta = C/\Gamma$ and $\theta_{ob} = 1/(\Gamma C)$, where C is some constant, $C \ll \Gamma$, should have the same linear polarization properties (in this case, the lines of sight make the same angles with the jet axis in the jet rest frame).

The typical degrees of polarization observed in compact AGN are fairly low, of the order of a few to ten or fifteen percent. Modest polarization is observed from any jet that has comparable toroidal and poloidal fields in the jet rest frame, $B'_\phi \sim B'_z$. (Such relatively weakly polarized relativistic jets are still strongly toroidally dominated in the observer's frame.) The condition $B'_\phi \sim B'_z$ can be reached self-consistently: over-expansion of a jet would lead to an increase of the ratio B'_ϕ/B'_z , making the jet more likely to be unstable. The development of instabilities would lead to the dissipation of poloidal current and a decrease in B'_ϕ/B'_z (Colgate & Li 1998). Calculations of relativistic force-free expanding helices produced by the twisting of the magnetic field lines by the accretion disk also indicate that $B'_\phi \sim B'_z$ in the inner collimated part of the expanding magnetic helix (Lovelace et al. 2002). Thus, if the modest observed degrees of polarization are indeed due to the presence of comparable toroidal and poloidal fields in the jet frame, this would imply that *all relativistic jets are dominated by the toroidal magnetic field component in the observer's frame.*

Toroidally dominated jets are also expected on theoretical grounds. Suppose that AGN jets are launched from a black-hole-disk system with large-scale poloidal and toroidal fields at the surface of the disk. During the acceleration of the flow by magnetic stresses, the flow expands so that the ratio of B_ϕ to B_z will increase approximately linearly with cylindrical radius. If the jets are toroidally dominated on a cylindrical scale $\varpi \sim 0.3$ pc with $B_\phi/B_z \sim \Gamma \sim 10$, this implies that the Alfvén point (where $B_\phi/B_z \sim 1$) is located at $\varpi \sim 10^{17}$ cm, so that the ratio of the fields is $B_\phi/B_z \sim 0.1$ at the outer edge of the disk, located at $\varpi \sim 500R_G \sim 10^{16}$ cm ($R_G \sim 3 \times 10^{13}$ cm is the Schwarzschild radius of the supermassive black hole). Further in, the pinch angle depends on the details of the EMF distribution in the disk (e.g. Blandford 1976). This helps to reconcile the strong toroidal dominance in the jets expected on theoretical grounds with the observed EVPA orthogonal to the jet axis (as in Fig. 3).

In this paper, we have considered jets that have achieved asymptotic cylindrical collimation. Close to the central object, the jets are often observed to be conically divergent. Though a separate set of calculations for conical jets are necessary, qualitatively, we expect that the ratio of the toroidal and poloidal fields increases with distance, so that the jets are likely to have polarization along the jet axis at larger distances. This type of behavior (predominance of longitudinal polarization at larger distances) is seen in some cases (Denn, Mutel & Marscher 2000; Gabuzda & Gómez 2001).

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A. Comparison with Blandford & Königl (1979)

For comparison with previous calculations (Blandford & Königl 1979), we adopt a frame aligned with the direction of motion. In this frame (quantities measured in this frame are labeled with the subscript BK),

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{B}_{BK} &= \{\cos \eta_{BK} \sin \psi'_{BK}, -\sin \eta_{BK}, \cos \eta_{BK} \cos \psi'_{BK}\} \\ \mathbf{n} &= \{\cos \theta_{BK}, 0, \sin \theta_{BK}\} \\ \mathbf{v} &= \beta\{1, 0, 0\} \\ \mathbf{e}_{BK} &= \{-\cos \xi_{BK} \sin \theta_{BK}, \sin \xi_{BK}, \cos \xi_{BK} \cos \theta_{BK}\}.\end{aligned}\quad (\text{A1})$$

We find from (8)

$$\tan \xi_{BK} = \cot \eta_{BK} \frac{\cos(\theta_{BK} + \psi'_{BK}) - \beta \cos \psi'_{BK}}{1 - \beta \cos \theta_{BK}}, \quad (\text{A2})$$

reproducing Eq. (16) in Blandford & Königl (1979). The angle between $\hat{\mathbf{B}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{e}}$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \zeta &= (\hat{\mathbf{B}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{e}}) = \cos \eta_{BK} \cos \xi_{BK} \cos(\theta_{BK} + \psi'_{BK}) - \sin \eta_{BK} \sin \xi_{BK} = \\ &\frac{\beta \cos \eta_{BK} \sin \theta_{BK} \sin(\theta_{BK} + \psi'_{BK})}{\sqrt{(1 - \beta \cos \theta_{BK})^2 + \cot^2 \eta_{BK} (\cos(\theta_{BK} + \psi'_{BK}) - \beta \cos \psi'_{BK})^2}}\end{aligned}\quad (\text{A3})$$

B. Relativistic force-free jets

Conventionally, the structure of relativistic force-free jets has been considered in terms of the relativistic Grad-Shafranov equation, which for cylindrical geometry becomes a second-order ordinary differential equation (e.g. Appl & Camenzind 1993). Only few exact solutions have been found (Appl & Camenzind 1993; Istomin & Pariev 1994). The structure of relativistic jets (pinches) is more complicated than that of non-relativistic jets. In addition to the poloidal and toroidal magnetic fields, a relativistic jet has a radial electric field, which can be of the same order of magnitude as the total magnetic field, and a charge density, which can approach $\rho_e \sim j/nec$ (so that electric forces are comparable to the magnetic forces, $\rho_e E \sim jB$).

In a force-free approximation (Michel 1973; Uchida 1997a; Komissarov 2002; Lyutikov & Blandford 2003), it is assumed that inertia and pressure forces are not important, so that the force balance is determined only by electromagnetic forces $\mathbf{E} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}/4\pi + \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B} = 0$. This, combined with Maxwell equations and the ideal condition $\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$, allows one to express the current in terms of the fields

$$\mathbf{j} = \frac{(\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}) \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} + (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{E} \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{E}) \mathbf{B}}{4\pi B^2}. \quad (\text{B1})$$

In addition, it is assumed that $B^2 - E^2 > 0$ (this ensures that there is a frame in which the electric field is zero). It is possible to define an electromagnetic velocity, which is equal to the plasma

velocity across the magnetic field

$$\beta_{EM} = \frac{\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}}{B^2}. \quad (\text{B2})$$

The velocity along the magnetic field is not defined and can be chosen arbitrarily, subject to the physical constraint that the total velocity is lower than the speed of light.

For stationary cylindrical jets, the above relations imply that the non-zero components of the electromagnetic fields are B_ϕ , B_z and E_r , which are functions of r only. There is a charge density $\rho = \frac{\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}}{4\pi} = \frac{\partial_r(rE_r)}{4\pi r}$ and current $\mathbf{j} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \nabla \times \mathbf{B}$. We find then (Istomin & Pariev 1994)

$$B_z^2 = \frac{1}{2r} \partial_r r^2 (B_z^2 + B_\phi^2 - E_r^2). \quad (\text{B3})$$

This is an equation describing the equilibrium of a *relativistic* force-free jet. It reduces to the non-relativistic force-free equilibrium if $E_r = 0$. Next, we note that both sides of this equation are unchanged under a Lorentz boost along z : $(B_z^2 + B_\phi^2 - E_r^2) = \mathbf{B}^2 - \mathbf{E}^2$ is a relativistic invariant and B_z does not change under a boost along z). If $|E_r(r)| < |B_\phi(r)|$, it is possible to choose the velocity of a radius-dependent Lorentz boost $\beta(r)$ such that the electric field will vanish. Then, the magnetic fields $B_\phi^{nr}(r)$ and $B_z^{nr}(r)$ in the frame where $E_r = 0$ will satisfy the non-relativistic force-free jet equilibrium. This implies that any solution for a *relativistic* force-free jet with $|E_r(r)| < |B_\phi(r)|$ can be obtained from a known solution for a non-relativistic pinch, $B_z^{nr}(r)$ and $B_\phi^{nr}(r)$, by making a *formal radius-dependent boost* along the z axis:

$$E_r = \beta \Gamma B_\phi^{nr}, \quad B_\phi = B_\phi^{nr} \Gamma, \quad B_z = B_z^{nr}, \quad (\text{B4})$$

where $\beta \equiv \beta(r)$ and $\Gamma = 1/\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}$. We stress that this transformation is not a physical Lorentz transformation – it can have a radius-dependent z velocity, so that β and Γ are functions of r .

This method does not allow us to find solutions when $|E_r(r)| \geq |B_\phi(r)|$ (but $|E_r(r)| < |B(r)|$). In the latter case, there is no local frame where E_r would be zero. The equation (B3) can be integrated to give

$$\int_0^r r'^2 \frac{dB_z^2(r')}{dr'} dr' = r^2 (E_r^2(r) - B_\phi^2(r)). \quad (\text{B5})$$

One can see that, if the poloidal magnetic field B_z is a monotonic decreasing function of radius, then $|E_r(r)| < |B_\phi(r)|$ for any r and such solutions can be obtained using the method described here. If $dB_z^2/dr \geq 0$ for some r , then our method may not find all solutions having such $B_z(r)$. On the contrary, any solution that cannot be obtained as a result of a formal Lorentz boosting of a non-relativistic force-free solution must have $dB_z^2/dr \geq 0$ in at least some interval of radii. An additional relativistic-pinch solution can be obtained by adding a line charge $E_r \sim 1/r$. Although this provides intuitive physical insight into possible relativistic force-free configurations by relating them to the non-relativistic solutions, the radius-dependent Lorentz boost method allows us to obtain only a subclass of all possible relativistic solutions. Nevertheless, in this work, we limit our analysis to solutions that can be obtained by this method and have $|E_r(r)| < |B_\phi(r)|$.

For cylindrical jets, the axial and azimuthal electromagnetic velocities are $\beta_{EM,z} = E_r B_\phi / B^2$ and $\beta_{EM,\phi} = -B_z E_r / B^2$. The plasma velocity along the magnetic field is not constrained by the force-free equations. In the previous sections, when calculating the emissivity and Doppler boosts, we assumed that the total plasma velocity is along the z axis and that there is no rotation. This implies that the emitting plasma indeed slides along the magnetic field in such a way as to make the azimuthal velocity equal to zero. This may not be true in real jets; then one needs to modify the relations allowing for radial-dependent axial and azimuthal velocities. An alternative possible choice of the velocity of the plasma could be one that minimizes the kinetic energy of the flow. In this case, the velocity of the plasma will be the electromagnetic velocity β_{EM} , since the absolute value of the velocity cannot be smaller than the electromagnetic velocity. This choice for the velocity field of the plasma was used in the previous relativistic calculations of polarization from cylindrical relativistic force-free jets by Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak (2003). Since Pariev, Istomin & Beresnyak (2003) also assumed that B_z is constant with radius, their field configuration cannot be obtained by the method described in this Appendix.

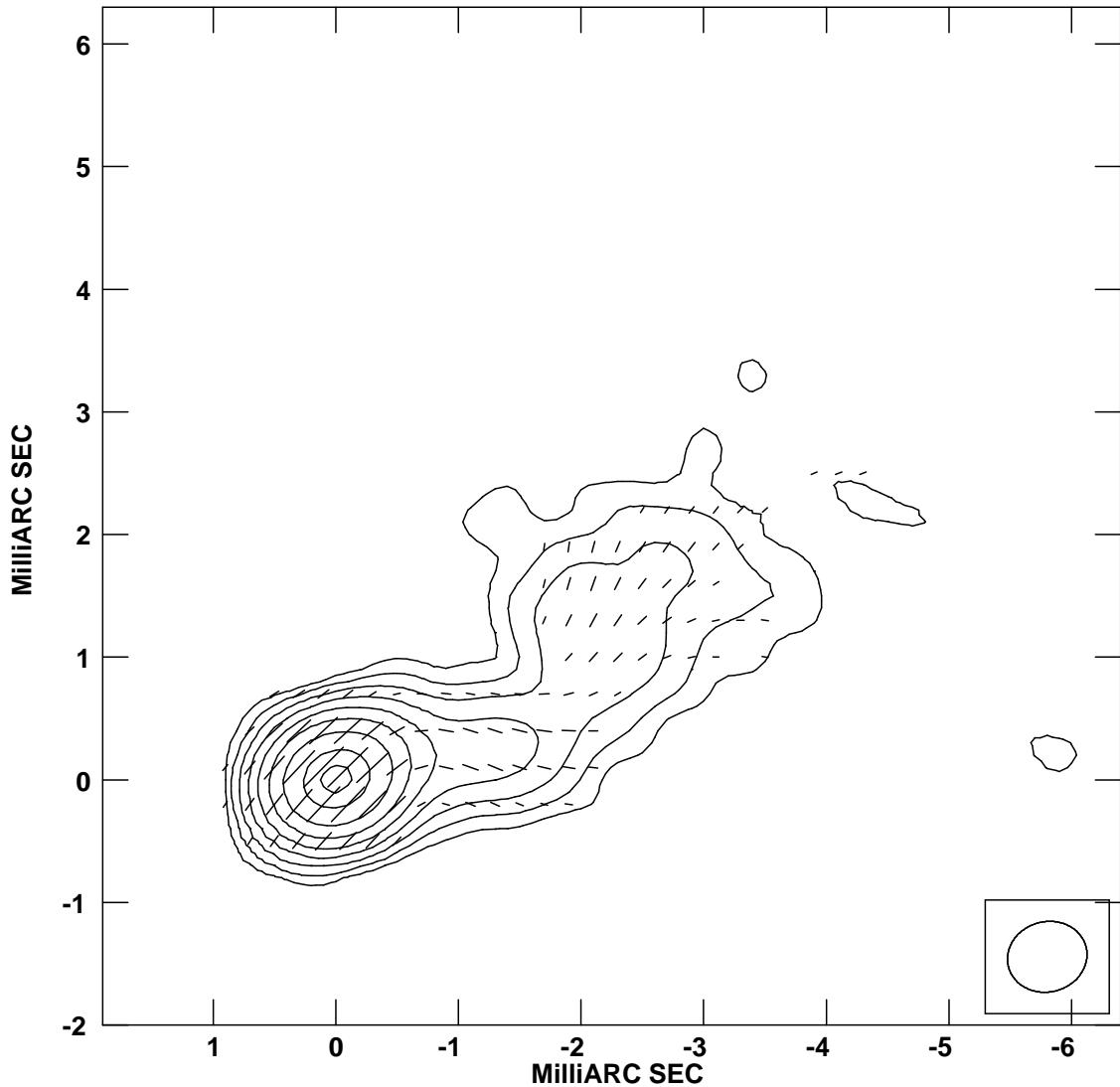


Fig. 1.— Observed 4 cm total-intensity contours and superposed linear-polarization vectors for the BL Lac object 1749+701: the polarization remains aligned with the jet direction as the jet bends (reproduced from Gabuzda 2003; data processing is described in Gabuzda, Pushkarev & Garnich 2001).

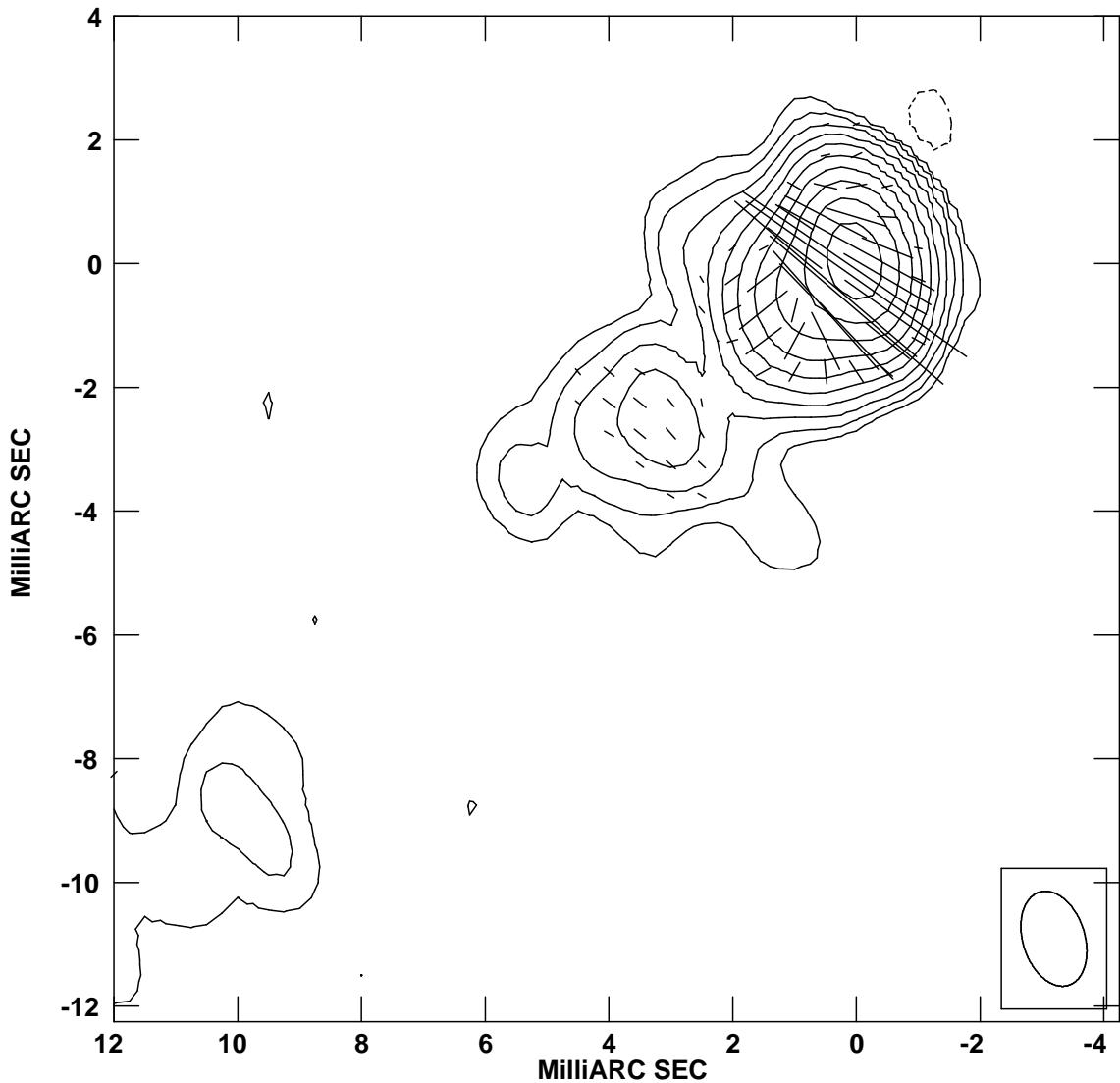


Fig. 2.— Observed 6 cm total-intensity contours and superposed linear-polarization vectors for the BL Lac object 1418+546: the orientation of the polarization relative to the jet displays jumps between being aligned with and orthogonal to the jet (reproduced from Gabuzda 2003 and Pushkarev et al. 2004).

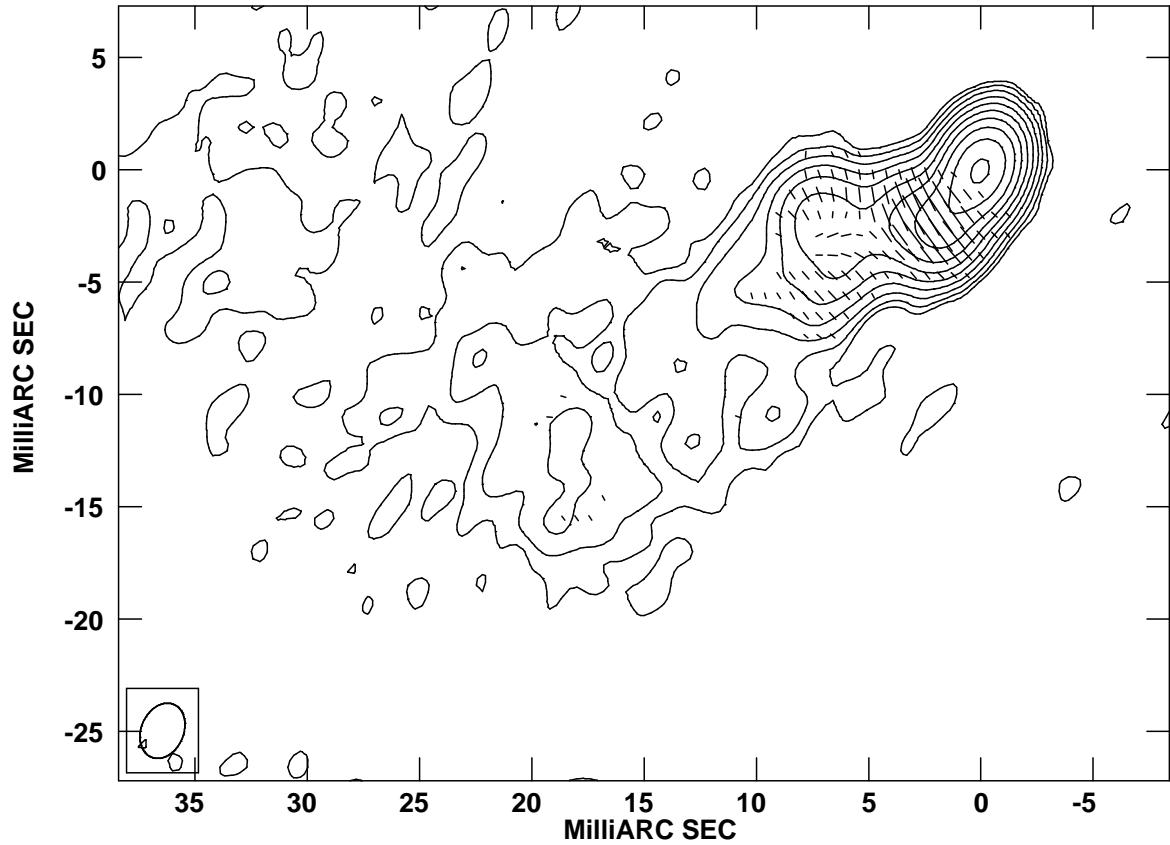


Fig. 3.— Observed 4 cm total-intensity contours and superposed linear-polarization vectors for the resolved jet of Mrk501: the EVPAs are aligned with the jet in the central region of the jet and orthogonal to the jet at its edges (reproduced from Gabuzda 2003 and Pushkarev et al. 2004).

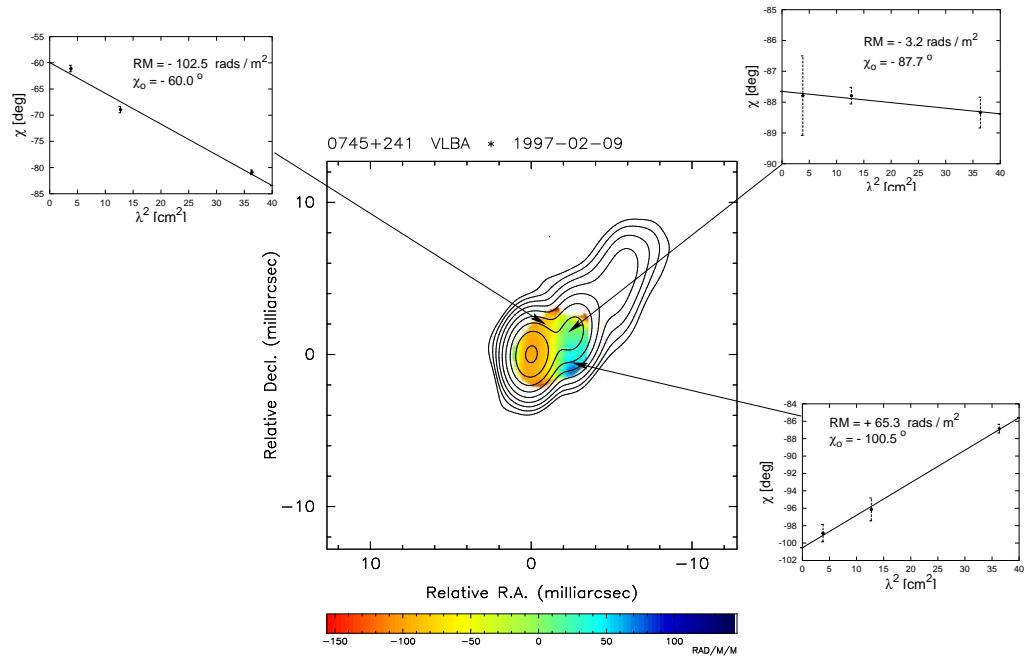


Fig. 4.— Observed 6 cm total-intensity contours and superposed distribution of the parsec-scale rotation measure for the BL Lac object 0745+241. A gradient of the rotation measure across the jet is clearly visible (reproduced from Gabuzda, Murray & Cronin 2004).

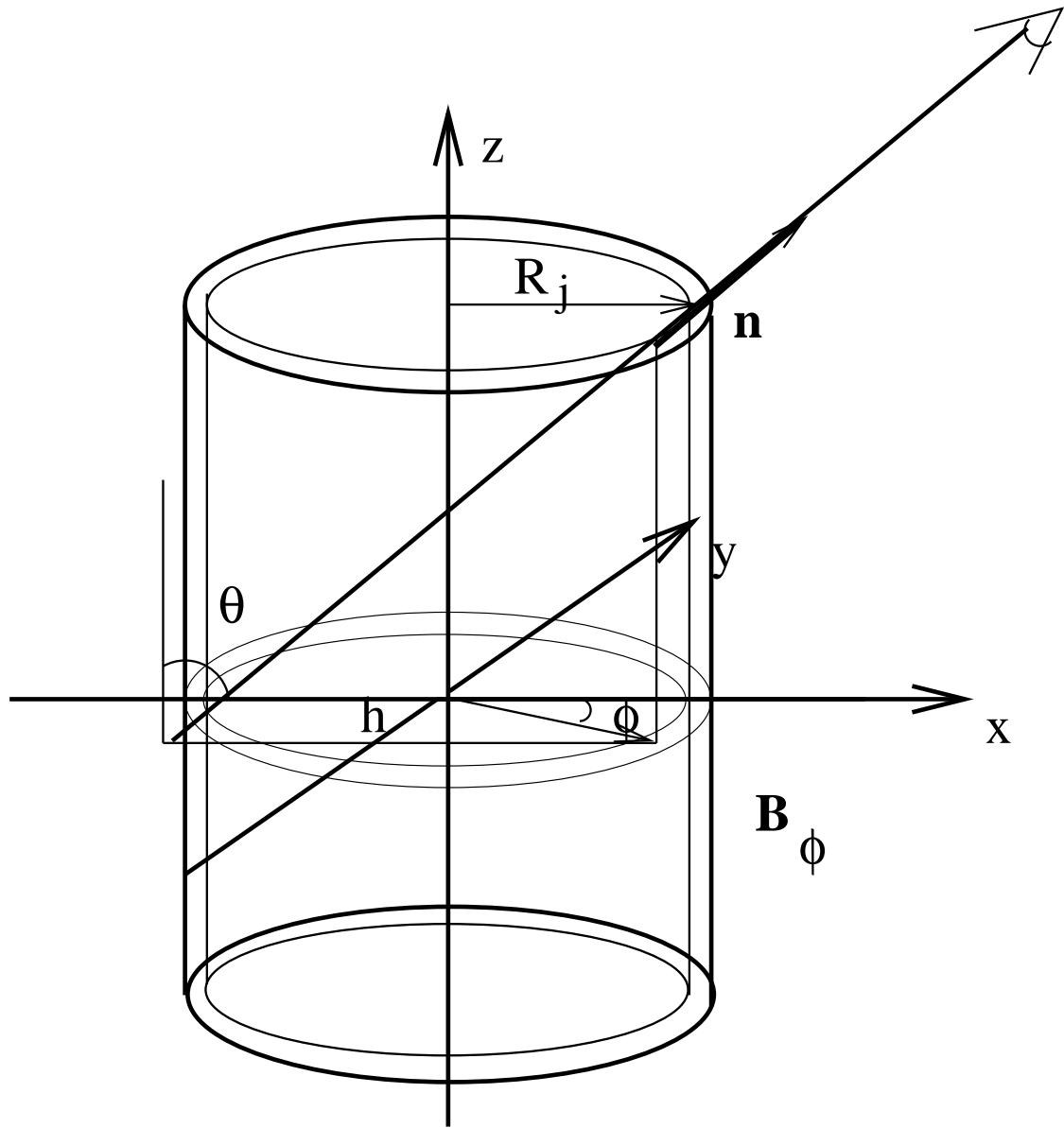


Fig. 5.— Geometry of the model.

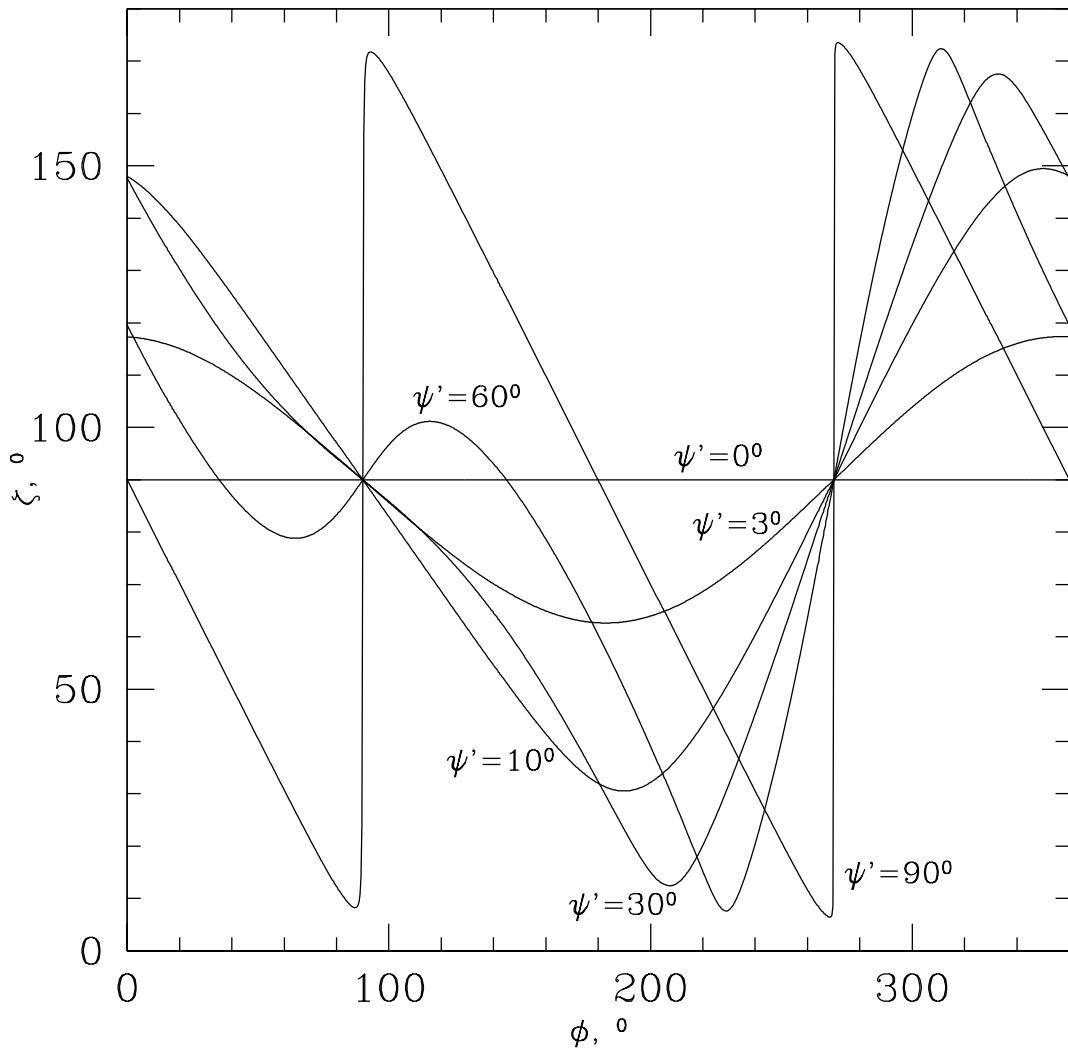


Fig. 6.— Angle ζ between the observed direction of the magnetic field $\hat{\mathbf{B}}$ and the polarization vector in the wave as a function of ϕ for a cylindrical shell with $\Gamma = 10$, $\theta = 0.1$ and six values of ψ' . In accordance with formula (10) $\zeta = 90^\circ$ when either the magnetic field is pure axial ($\psi' = 0$) or at the visible edges of the jet ($\phi = 90^\circ$ and $\phi = 270^\circ$).

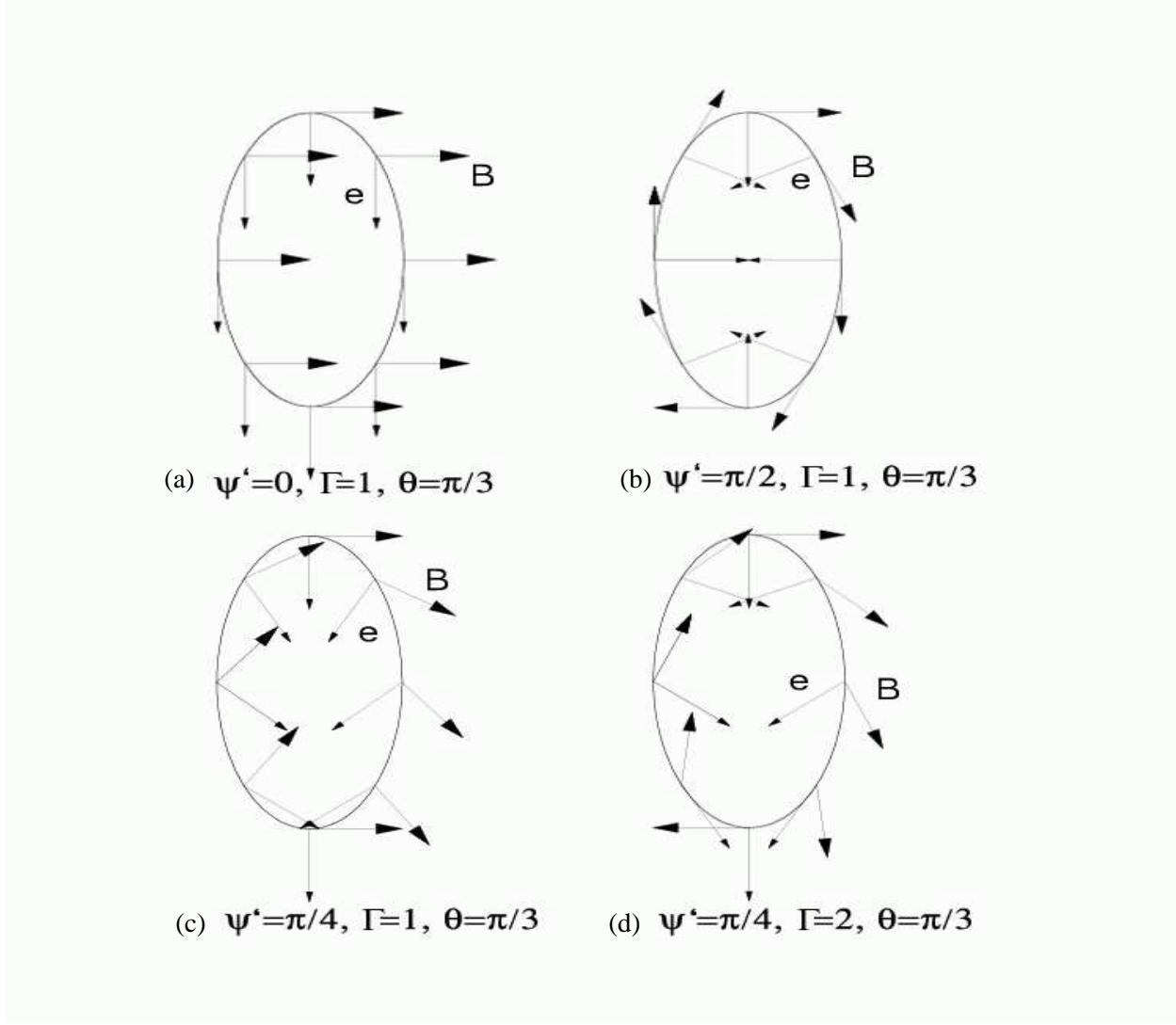


Fig. 7.— Examples of observed electric field in the wave and magnetic field for $\theta = \pi/3$. Projections of the magnetic field on the plane of the sky are denoted by arrows with large head, electric fields are denoted by arrows with small heads. (a) Purely poloidal magnetic field $\psi' = 0$, (b) toroidal magnetic field $\psi' = \pi/2$, (c) helical field with $\psi' = \pi/4$ viewed in the rest frame, (d) helical field with $\psi' = \pi/4$ moving with $\Gamma = 2$. For stationary jets ((a)-(c)) electric vector of the wave is always orthogonal to the magnetic field in the jet in the observer frame, for moving jets (case (d)) this is not true anymore.

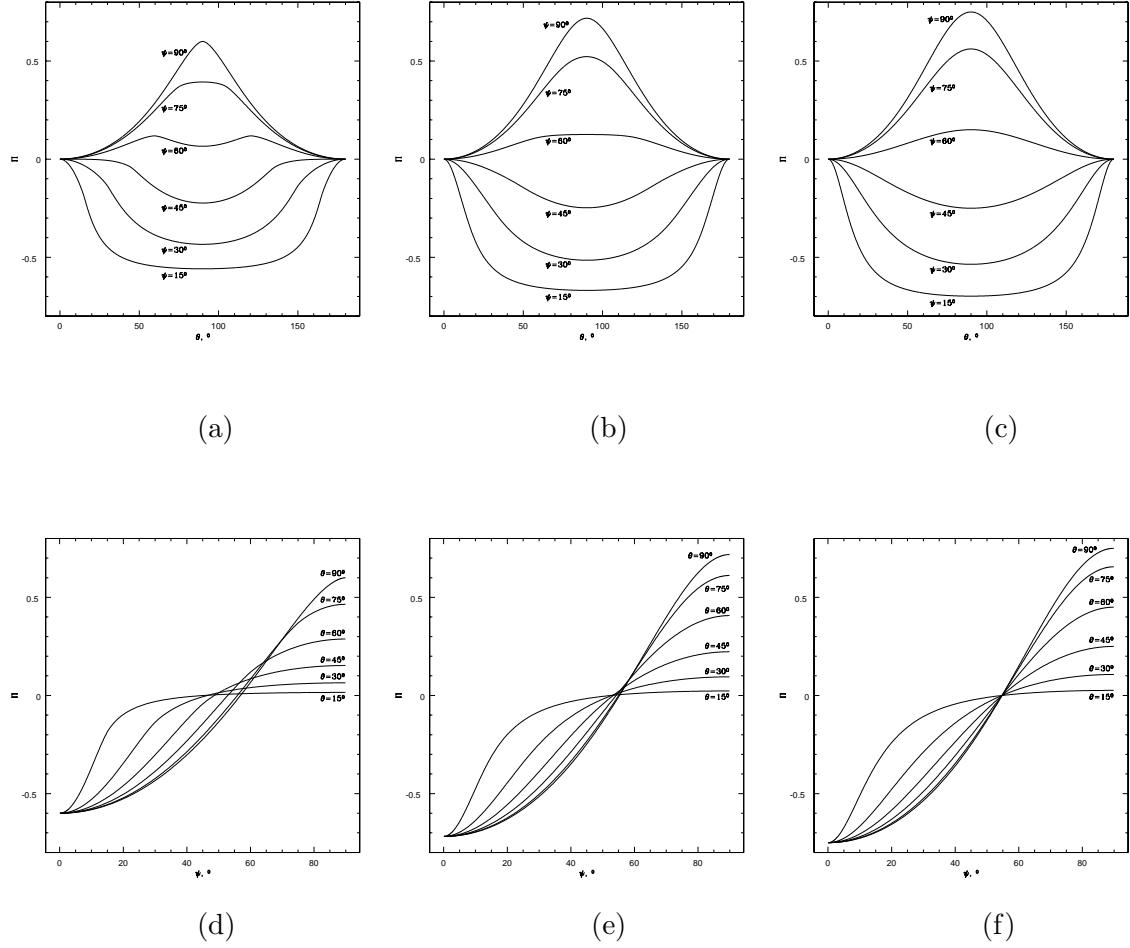


Fig. 8.— Polarization fraction $\Pi = Q/I$ for non-relativistic cylindrical shells. First raw of plots are Π as a function of the observer angle θ for $p = 1$ (a), 2.4 (b), 3 (c); second raw of plots are Π as a function of the pitch angle ψ' for $p = 1$ (d), 2.4 (e), 3 (f). Positive values indicate polarization along the jet, negative — polarization orthogonally to the jet.

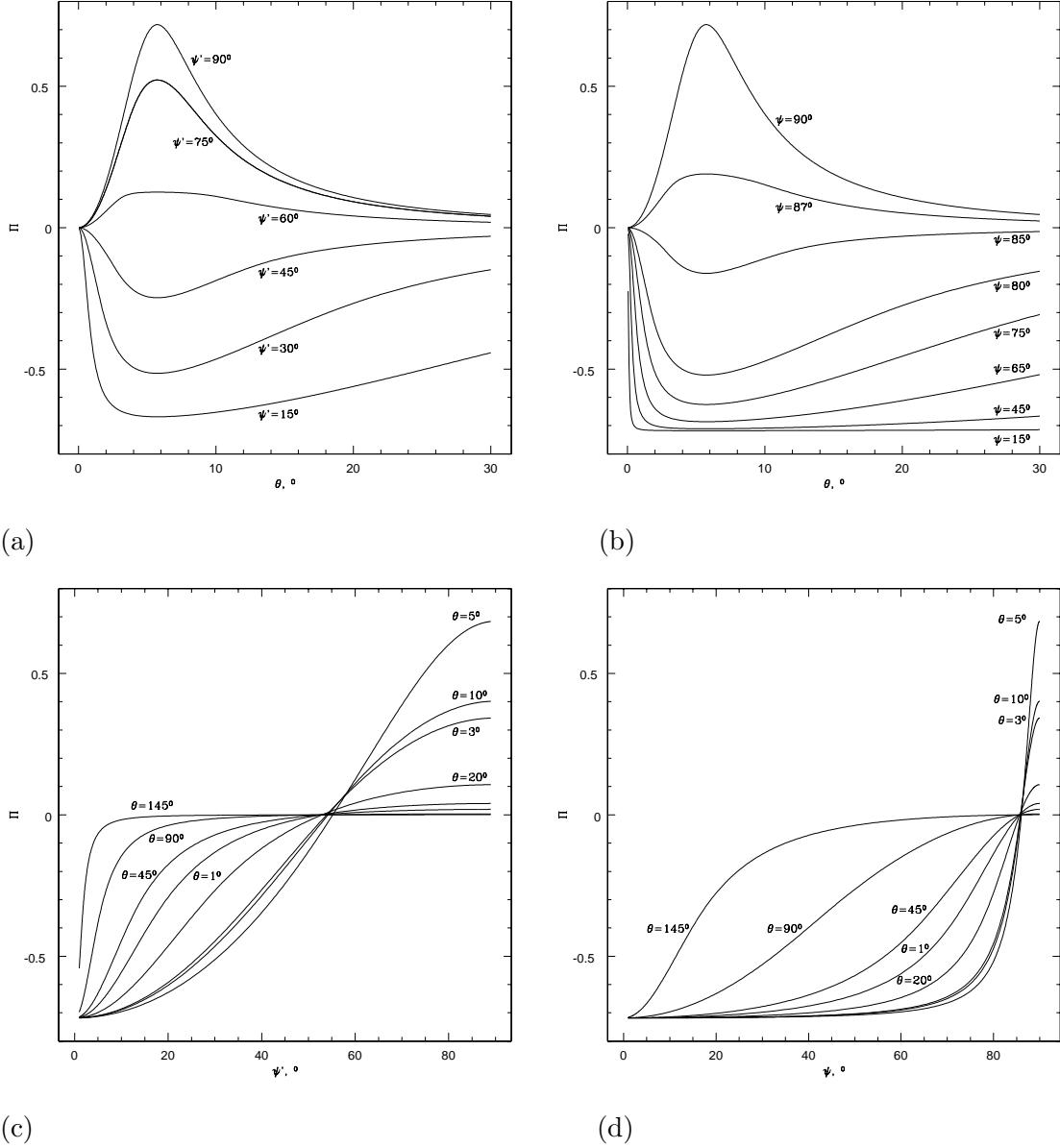


Fig. 9.— Polarization fraction for cylindrical shells with $\Gamma = 10$ and particle index $p = 2.4$ as a function of the observer angle θ for different values of rest frame pitch angle ψ' (a) and for different values of laboratory frame pitch angle ψ (b); for different values of the observer angle θ as a function of the rest frame pitch angle ψ' (c) and laboratory frame pitch angle ψ (d).

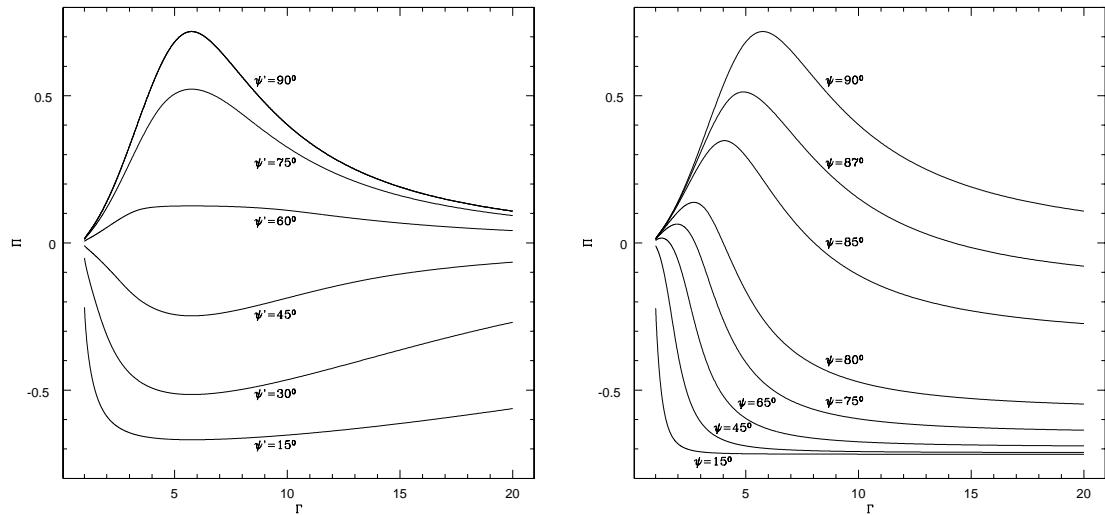


Fig. 10.— Polarization fraction for a cylindrical shell as a function of Lorentz factor Γ for different rest frame and laboratory frame pitch angles ψ' and ψ . Viewing angle $\theta = 10^0$ and $p = 2.4$.

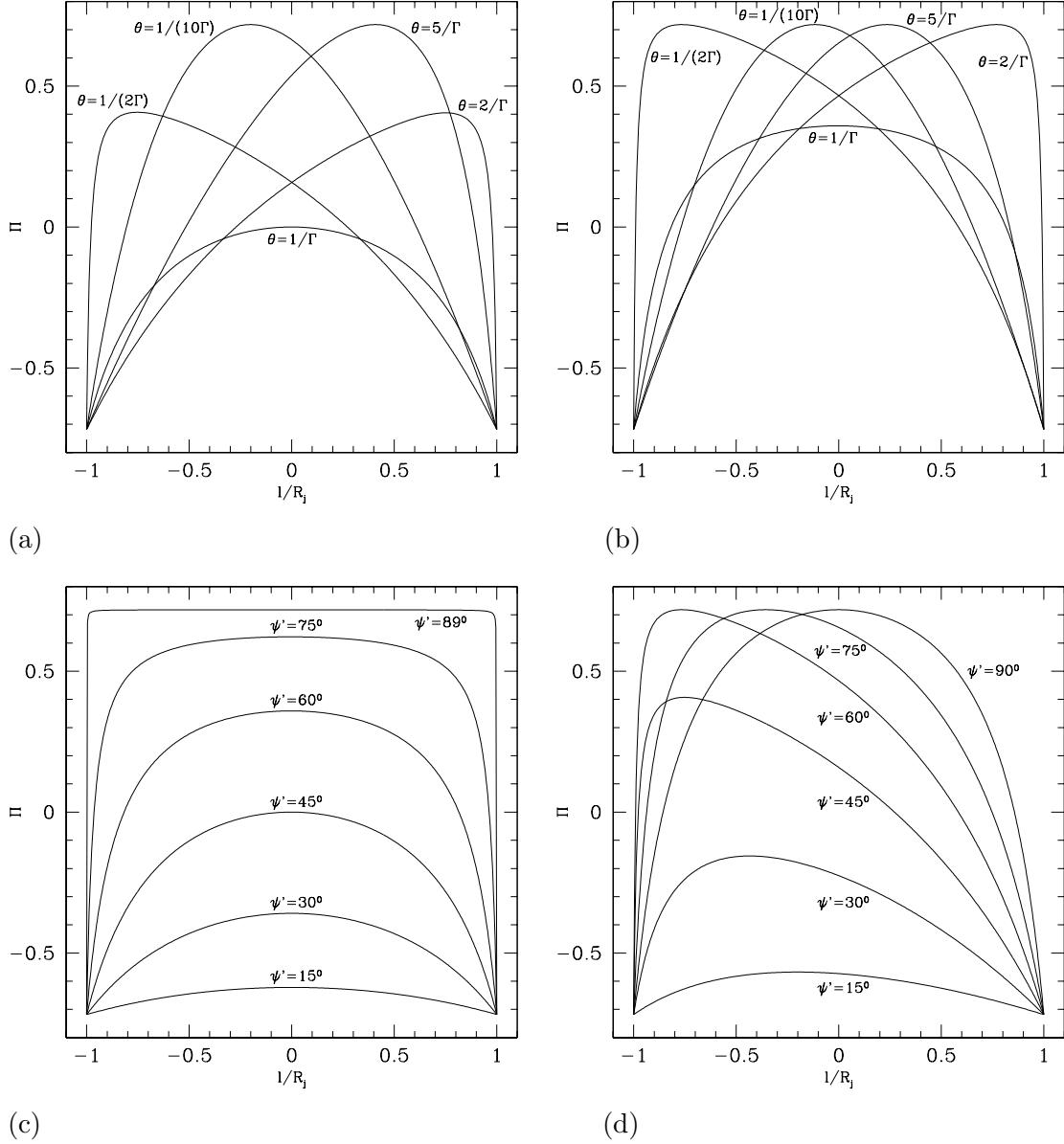


Fig. 11.— Profiles of the polarization degree Π for resolved cylindrical shells as a function of the distance across the jet projected on the sky, l . The radius of the shell, R_j , is arbitrary. $\Gamma = 10$ and $p = 2.4$. The plots (a) are for $\psi' = 45^\circ$, and plots (b) are for $\psi' = 60^\circ$ while for the different values of the viewing angle θ . Plots (c) are for $\theta = 1/\Gamma$, and plots (d) are for $\theta = 1/(2\Gamma)$ while for the different values of the pitch angle ψ' . For small and large θ , the polarization in the central part of the image is along the axis of the jet regardless of the value of ψ' . For $\theta \sim 1/\Gamma$ the polarization can be longitudinal only for $\psi' > 45^\circ$. At the edge of the jet the polarization is orthogonal to the jet axis for any values of θ and ψ' .

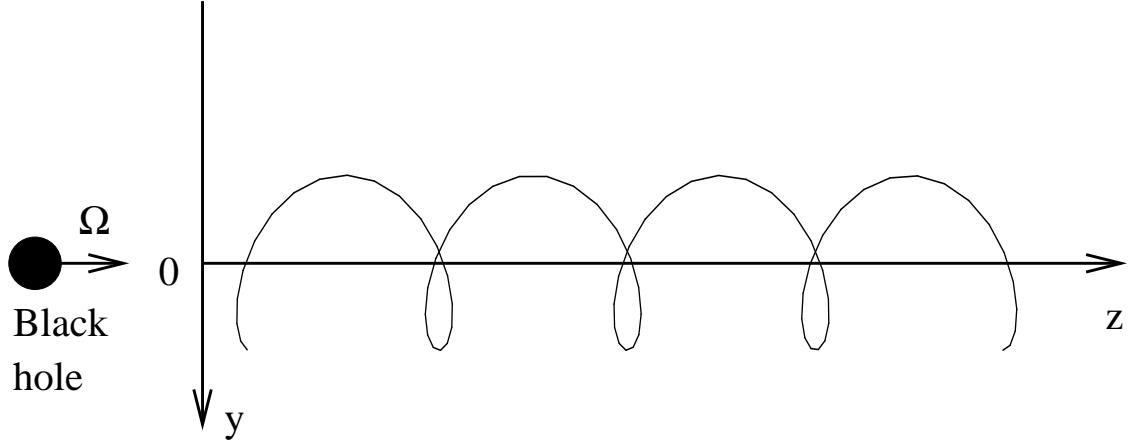


Fig. 12.— A "head-on" ($\theta\Gamma < 1$) view of a left-handed helical magnetic field in the reference frame comoving with the jet in the positive z -direction. Polarization Π of the lower, $y > 0$, part is larger, i.e. it is more likely to be along the jet. The location of the observer is the same as on Fig. 5.

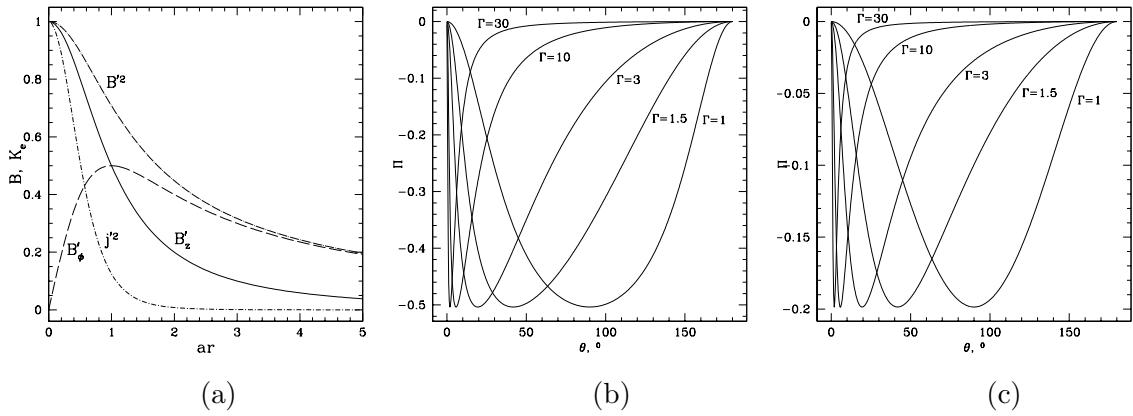


Fig. 13.— Polarization for a diffuse pinch, Section 4.1. (a) Radial profiles of B'_z , B'_ϕ , B'^2 , and j'^2 (Eqs. (24-25)). Units are arbitrary: the profile of B_z is normalized to unity, the units of B_z and B_ϕ are the same, the profiles of the densities of emitting particles, B'^2 and j'^2 , are also normalized to unity. (b) Degree of polarization for $p = 2.4$ for the density of relativistic particles $K_e \propto j'^2$, as a function of the observer angle θ for different bulk Lorentz factors Γ . (c) Same as (b), but for $K_e \propto B'^2$.

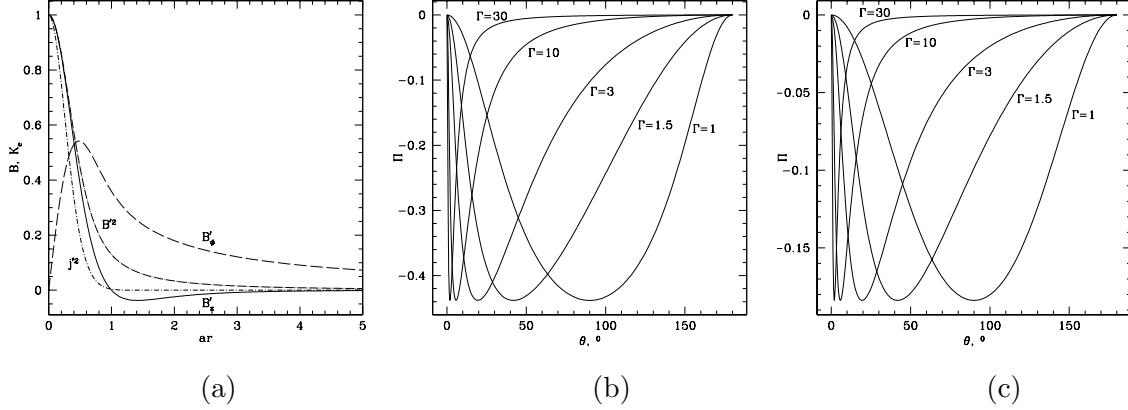


Fig. 14.— Polarization for a reversed field pinch with vanishing total poloidal flux for the fields given by equations (26). Notations are the same as in Fig. 13. (a) Radial profiles. (b) Degree of polarization for $p = 2.4$ for the density of relativistic particles $K_e \propto j'^2$. (c) Degree of polarization for $p = 2.4$ for the density of relativistic particles $K_e \propto B'^2$.

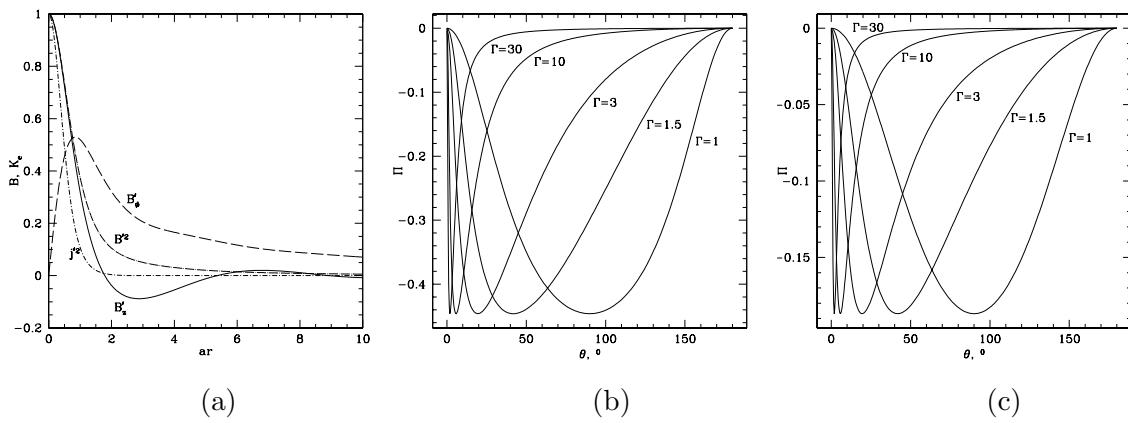


Fig. 15.—Polarization for a pinch with multiple axial field reversals for the fields given by Eqns. (29-30). Notations are the same as in Fig. 13. (a) Radial profiles. (b) Degree of polarization for $p = 2.4$ for the density of relativistic particles $K_e \propto j'^2$. (c) Degree of polarization for $p = 2.4$ for the density of relativistic particles $K_e \propto B'^2$.

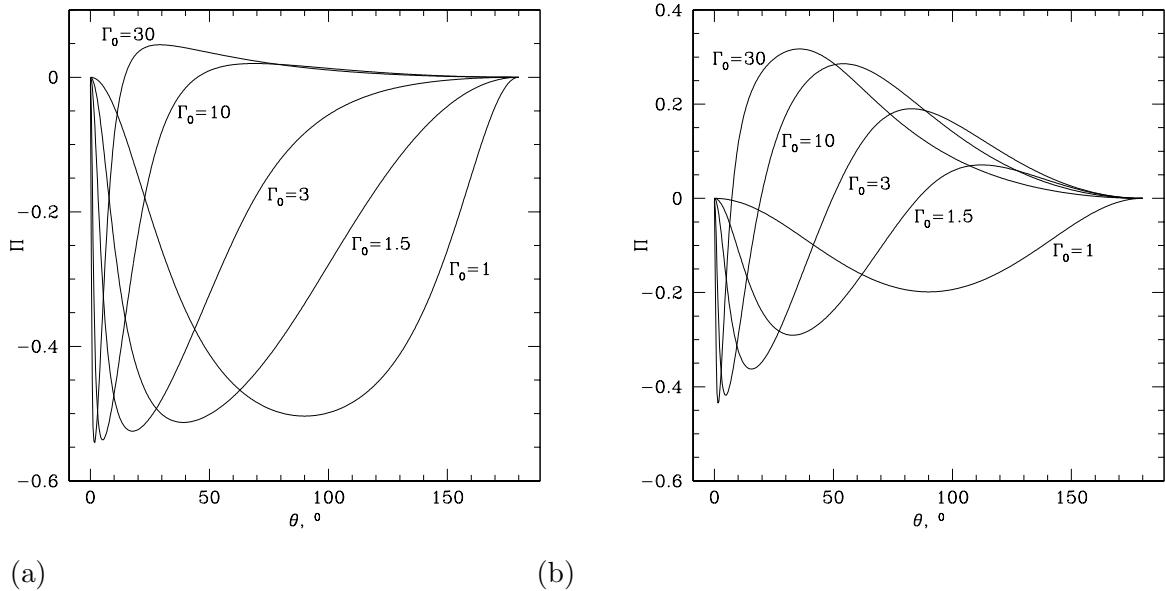


Fig. 16.— Polarization for the sheared diffuse pinch (for discussion see Section 5) for $p = 2.4$ integrated over the whole jet. (a) The density of relativistic particles $K_e \propto j'^2$, (b) The density of relativistic particles $K_e \propto B'^2$.